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ABSTRACT

This selection of articles from the first nine years of the TESOL Newsletter is limited to articles which originated in the Newsletter. Articles that were reprinted or excerpted from other sources do not appear here. A bibliography of all articles that have appeared in the first nine volumes of the Newsletter is also included. The articles are arranged into four categories: (1) general information and bibliography; (2) current issues and state of the art papers; (3) bilingual and bicultural education; and (4) methods and classroom practices. Articles are included by the following authors: A. Aarons, P. Mullins, J. Alatis, E. Cervenka, W. Marquardt, M. Shugrue, D. Harris, M. Galvan, J. Wissot, G. Harvey, P. Bell, R. Shuy, S. Krear, P. Vinas de Vazquez, J. Haskell, A. Carlovich, E. Hazuka, K. Taschler, R. Hitt, K. Czarnecki, J. Ramos, K. Croft, R. Inclan, F. Gomes de Matos, D. Larson, and L. Anger. (AMH)

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TESOL Newsletter:

Articles from Volumes I-IX 1967-1975

Selected and Edited

by

John F. Haskell

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH. EDUCATION & WELFARE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

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The TESOL Newsletter (TN) was first published in 1967 as part of the mandate of the newly formed Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages professional organization in order to provide news and information about the field to its members. Many original articles, news-briefs, and announcements have appeared since the first issue, as well as articles reprinted from other sources.

The selection of articles from the first nine years of the TN is limited to articles which originated in the Newsletter, and which seem of interest or relevance today. (Articles that were reprinted or excerpted from other sources do not appear here.) A bibliography of all articles that have appeared in the first nine volumes of the TN, a list which appeared in Volume X, Number 1, 1975, is also included.

The majority of articles during this period reflect the organization's concern with what was happening in the field of ESL and include state of the art reports or statements (Cervenka, Marquardt, Shugrue, Harris, Galvan and Alatis) and articles on such specialized areas of teaching as SESD (Shuy), adult education (Taschler and Hitt), and bilingual education (Wissot, Harvey, Bell, Krear, Viñas, Haskell, and Carlovich and Hazuka). A number of articles from this period also reflect teacher needs and interests ranging from job selection (Mullin) and new methods (Carlovich and Ramos) to practical classroom strategies and information (Inclan, Croft, Gomes de Matos, and Larson) and a practical teacher check-list by Larry Anger.

In arranging the articles, I have put them into four categories: I. General Information and Bibliography; II. Current Issues/State of the Art; III. Bilingual/Bicultural Education/SESD; IV. Methods and Classroom Practices (A. Programs and Methodologies; B. Linguists and Grammar; C. Classroom Materials/Techniques; and D. Testing and Evaluation).

TESOL Newsletter: Articles from Volumes I-IX (1967-1975).

Selected and Edited by John F. Haskell

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Marquardt, William F. "The Tenth International Congress of Linguists: Implications for Teaching English as a Second Language." Vol. II, Nos. 1-2, January-March 1968.

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Galvan, Mary. "ESL IS Appropriate." Vol. IX, No. 6, December 1975.

III. Bilingual/Bicultural Education and SESD.

Wissot, Jay. "The Teacher, His Roles, and the Cuban Student." Vol. II, No. 4, November 1968.

Harvey, Gina P. "TESL Classes on the Navajo Reservation." Vol. II, No. 4, November 1968.

Bell, Paul W. "Bilingual Education--A Second Look." Vol. V, Nos. 3-4, September-December 1971.

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Viñas de Vazquez, Paquita. "The Teaching of English in Puerto Rico." Vol. VI, No. 3, April 1973.

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Carlovich, Ann and Ernestine Hazuka. "What is Bilingual Education and What Makes Bilingual Programs Work?" Vol. IX, No. 6, December 1975.

IV. Methods and Clasroom Practices.

A. Programs and Methodologies.

Taschler, Kathryn and Richard Hitt. "Teacher-Training in ESL for Adults: New Jersey Suggests a Model." Vol. VI, No. 2, November 1972.

Czarnecki, Karen E. and Joseph A. Ramos. "Counseling-Learning: A Wholistic View of the Learner." Vol. IX, No. 6, December 1975.

B. Grammar and Linguistics.

Croft, Kenneth. "Some Implications of the Phrase 'As Everybody Knows'." Vol. II, Nos. 1-2, January-March 1968.

C. Classroom Materials and Techniques.

Inclan, Rosa. "Visuals to the Rescue of the ESL Teacher." Vol. II, No. 4, November 1968.

Gomes de Matos, F. "Humo(u)r, A Neglected Feature in Foreign Language Teaching." Vol. IX, No. 3, May 1975.

Larson, Darlene. "Lessons That Work." Vol. IX, No. 3, May 1975.

D. Testing and Evaluation.

Anger, Larry. "Some Priorities for a Good ESL Class." Vol. IX, No. 3, May 1975.

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- "The Bilingual in the Southwest" by Theodore Andersson. (Reprinted from the Spring, 1967 issue of the *Florida FL Reporter*)
- "Dialects" by Jean Malmstrom. (Reprinted from the Winter 1967 *Fla. FL Reporter*)
- "Random Thoughts in TESL" by Mary Finocchiaro (Reprinted from the Jan. 1965, *Fla. F.L. Reporter*)
- "The Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages" by J. Donald Bowen (Reprinted from the Jan. 1965, *Fla. F.L. Reporter*)
- "The Other Side of the Coin" by Paul Bell (From the Spring 1967, *Fla. FL Reporter*)

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- "TESOL—The State of the Art Today" by Edward Cervenka
- "UHF and Microwaves in Transmitting Language Skills" by Earl Stevick (Reprinted from the *International Journal of American Linguistics*, Jan. 1966).
- "Terminal Behavior in Language Teaching" by J. Donald Bowen (Reprinted from the *TESL Reporter*, Winter 1968)
- "Some Implications of the Phrase "As Everybody Knows" by Kenneth Croft

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- "Cowboys, Indians, and American Education" by Harold Howe

Volume II, No. 4 November 1968
- "The Teacher, His Role, and the Cuban Student" by Jay Wissot
- "Visuals to the Rescue of the ESL Teacher" by Rosa Inclan
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- "Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: The State of the Art" by Ronald Wardaugh (ERIC Document)

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- "Social Dialects and Second Language Learning: A Case of Territorial Overlap" by Roger Shuy
- "What Can an English Teacher Do About Non-Standard Dialect" by Ralph Fasold
- "Bilingual Education—A Second Look" by Paul Bell

Vol. VI, No. 1 May 1972
- "Current Issues in E.S.L." by David Harris
- "Thinking and Feeling in Two Cultures" by Serafina Krear

Vol. VI, No. 2 November 1972
- "Teacher Training in ESL for Adults: New Jersey Suggests a Model" by Kathryn Taschler and Richard Hitt

Vol. VII, No. 3, April 1973
- "The Teaching of English in Puerto Rico" by Paquita Viñas de Vazquez

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- "Choosing your Overseas Job" by Robert Mullins

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- "Humo(u)r, A Neglected Feature in Foreign Language Teaching" by F. Gomes de Matos
- "Some Priorities for a Good ESL Class" by Larry Anger

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- "Meeting the TESOL Office Staff" by Carol LeClair
- "Teaching English to Korean Speakers" by Greg Strick
- "Listening Comprehension for the Advanced Learner" by Alex Vogel

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- "Counseling-Learning: A Wholistic View of the Learner" by Karen Czarnecki and Joseph Ramos
- "TESOL-Meeting the Social Issues" (ESL IS Appropriate) by Mary Galvan
- "Our Vietnamese" (A Report on the Indochinese Clearinghouse) by John Haskell
- "Tourist ESL" by Margaret Van Naerssen
- "What is Bilingual Education and What Makes Bilingual Programs Work" (Joshua Fischman) by Ann Carlovich and Ernestine Hazuka
- "Alatis on Acronyms" Part I by James Alatis

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Institute of Languages & Linguistics
Georgetown University
Washington, D. C. 20007.

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State House, High Holborn
London, W.C.1, England.

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Though teaching jobs in the U.S. are becoming scarce, with the proper techniques you should have no difficulty in finding a number of overseas positions to choose from. Because there is a constant and tremendous turnover of TESL/FL positions abroad, there are always good openings if you take the trouble to look for them.

You "look" for jobs by sending out as many letters as possible, *at least nine months to a year* before you will be available for hire. Write first to any contacts you may have abroad, then to other sources (below).

First letters should be brief, asking what will be available when you are. Include a one-page *curriculum vitae*. The cv should reflect confidence in your ability and, when possible, stress those aspects of your training/experience which a potential employer is assumed to be looking for. Your performance in an interview should also emphasize what you consider to be desired qualities.

General Sources

Consult ESL faculty members: departmental job files university placement offices, *TESOL Newsletter;* New York (and London) *Times* Educational Sections.

Write directly to foreign universities, ministries of education, specialized institutes or agencies which have English Language Programs (ELP's), and the cultural affairs officers of these countries at their embassies/consulates in the U.S.

Contact cultural affairs officers of American embassies abroad (or United States Information Service- USIS, c/o the American Embassy), and ask what ELP's exist, who runs them, if there might be openings. This is the time to inquire about American companies and American/International Schools.

Visit your pastor to learn about missionary and other church-related teaching activities overseas.

For a publication entitled "Teaching Abroad", write to the Insititute of International Education, 809 U.N. Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017.

Specific Sources

1. Near East College Association, Inc., 305 East 45th St., New York, N.Y. 10017
2. American Friends of the Middle East, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.
3. Asia Foundation, 550 Kearny St., San Francisco, Calif.
4. Language Center, Nanyang University, Upper Jarong Rd., Singapore 22, Republic of Singapore
5. International Voluntary Services, 1515 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036
6. Peace Corps (also recruits for UN Volunteers), 1717 H St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20525
7. International School Services, 126 Alexandria St., Princeton, N.J. 08540
8. University Positions: CIEP (Fulbright/Hayes), 2101 Constitution Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20418
9. Elem. & Sec. Schls.: Teacher Exchange Section, U.S. Office of Education, DHEW, Washington, D.C. 20202
10. Overseas Personnel Recruitment Service (Religious Affiliation), 475 Riverside Dr., Suite 417, New York, N.Y. 10027
11. For Pacific Territories Personnel Officer, Office of the High Commissioner, TTPI, Saipan, Mariana Islands 96950
12. IUC, 90-91 Tottenham Court Rd., London W1P 0DT England
13. Overseas Service, Inc., 11324 Long Beach Blvd., Lynwood, Calif. 90262
14. Language House, 430 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60611
15. Independent Educational Services, 80 Nassau St., Princeton, N.J. 08540

Vital Questions

When you have a number of firm job offers/contracts in hand, in order to make the final choice consider the answers you get to the following questions.

The Contract: How much is the salary offered and, equally important, what will the cost of living be like? How much are you permitted to send home to the States? (If you are planning a career as an expatriate teacher, be sure that your salary always enables you to contribute to your own pension plan since many overseas jobs do not provide for this.)

Is there a provision for rent and furniture/"settling-in" allowance, for medical care, readjustment allowance, severence pay, etc.?

Most contracts are for two years, the employer paying 100% of the transportation costs if you stay two years, 50% for one year, and 0% for less than one year. What does your contract say

How many pounds of baggage will your employer pay for by sea? By air? Will your shipment be subject to import duties, and how much will that amount to?

The Job. Though the contract won't tell you what kind of discipline problems to expect, or what your coworkers will be like, it *should* tell you, or you should attempt to find out, the following information.

Who will be your immediate supervisor? American, British, or Host Country National? If American, there will probably be few surprises in store for you. If British, remember that a common language by no means implies a common life style or world view, and that the Englishman's approach to TESL and/or education may be new to you.

Who will you teach and how many? Will it be the age group you have been trained to teach, that you wish to teach, in numbers small enough so that you *can* teach?

What will you teach? All the skills? Some of them? At what levels? What materials are in use? (And, what materials might you want to bring with you?)

How many contact hours will you have each week? Will you have to substitute for absent teachers?

What professional duties, in addition to teaching, will you be responsible for? The preparation of new materials? In areas in which you are qualified to contribute? How many hours a week will this involve? Be sure the contract indicates.

What extra-curricular activities must you be involved in? Be sure this point is spelled out also.

Will you be teaching to prepare your students for school or national exams, or will you be teaching them to speak the language (or use it in whatever way they actually have a need to use it)? How much freedom will you have to depart from the assigned text? To write supplementary material into your curriculum?

During vacations, will you be free to travel or will you be expected to perform additional duties?

Finally, be sure that what you sign is a valid, binding contract, not just a letter of intent. If your prospective employer

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writes, "We'll iron out the details when you get here," and you still go there, you deserve whatever you get.

The Host Country: Questions in this section assume that you still wish to live in a situation which is, relatively speaking, physically, psychologically, and financially comfortable.

What is the climate like throughout the year? Are there harsh extremes which must be mitigated by air-conditioning or heating? If so, what will it cost?

Where will you be working? You may not like cities but are you *sure* you would want to accept assignment to a small town? How many other people in the town would speak English? If none, you might find that you were carrying on an audible conversation with *yourself* within a few months' time!

Where will you be located in relation to other parts of the Host Country? In some places, domestic travel is difficult, tiresome, costly, or all three.

Will you have to buy a car? In most third world countries people who can afford cars are assumed to be able to afford at least 100% customs duties on those cars.

To find out what your cost of living is likely to be, base your calculations on the following items:

- Housing: (if this is not paid for by employers, or if your needs will exceed allowance.)
- Home Furnishings: (as above, except for Housing.)
- Appliances: Will it be cheaper to import, and perhaps pay high customs duties, or to buy "in-country"?
- Food: If locally produced foodstuffs will not be acceptable/sufficient, what will imported goods cost?
- Servants: How many will you need and what must they be paid? (Servants may be a necessity in countries where marketing is done daily, clothes are hand-washed, cooking is done over charcoal fires, and floors are hand-waxed.)

TESOL NEWSLETTER
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL):
A Professional Organization for Those Concerned with the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language and of Standard English as a Second Dialect

Editor: *Ruth E. Wineberg*
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Newsletter available through membership only.

Medical facilities should only be taken for granted if you are to be working in a large city. The life expectancy in many third world countries is well under 40 and this obviously means that you will either witness or personally experience many diseases you would not have encountered in the States. If you go abroad with a family it is essential to be located either near good medical facilities, or near some means of transportation that can get you to these facilities quickly.

Can you get along, if necessary, without one or more of the following: TV, Western films, classical music, good books, libraries, concerts, worth-reading newspapers, intellectual discussions, current ideas and publications in your professional field, the kind of parties, sports and games that you have been used to? Depending on your personality and life style, the answer to this question may be very important to you.

The Host Country National: It is most important that you know what kind of people you will be living and working with. However, it is impossible, in most cases, to make generalizations about what to expect abroad, or even what to expect within a particular country. About the only unqualified statement I can make is that if *everyone* you ask about a city/country warns you off, stay away!

Below are some general guidelines you might want to consider in the absence of any hard facts.

- What other foreigners have been in the country before you, and in what capacity (advisors? colonials? military?)?
- Religion and Culture dictate the life style and world view of the Host Country Nationals, and of *you*, to a certain extent, while you are "in-country." Some peoples are more conservative than you could imagine and their tone sets the pace for the entire country. There are certain cultural taboos which it would be extremely bad form for you to violate.
- Considering the above, how would *you* fit into life in each of the countries you are considering? (Note: Not how would "they" fit into *your* life style?)

Conclusion: Most of the questions presented in this paper are best put to people who have been, or who are now working in the areas to which you wish to go. If your prospective employer wants you badly enough, he will probably go out of his way to give you as much information as he can. But there is no reason to overlook such an obvious source as the library. Take a look at articles in encyclopedias, appropriate reference books, as well as current political, economic and geographic publications. Also write for background information from the embassies, and even take a look at the brochures your travel agent can provide.

The only place that comes out favorably when all of the criteria of this paper are applied is called Utopia. No country is "good" in every respect. You will only find some that appear to be better in many ways than most others, and this is purely a matter of personal preference. Only experience will tell you what to avoid and what to demand of a job situation abroad.

Below is a Job Rating List, covering the more tangible aspects of life/work overseas.

1. The Contract
a. Salary—Amount ....
  % Taxes ....
  Repatriation Limits ....
b. Allowances—Rent ....
  Settling-In ....
  Medical ....
  Readjustment/Severance ....
  Air Freight ....
  Sea Freight ....
  Import Duties ....

2. The Job
a. Supervisor—US/UK/HCN ....
b. Students—Age ....
  Class Size ....
c. Materials—In Use ....
  To bring ....
d. Hours per wk—Contact ....
  Extra-Professional ....
  Extra-Curricular ....
e. Days Local Leave ....

3. The Host Country
a. Climate ....
b. Location of Post ....
c. Post Medical Care ....
d. Post Recreational Facilities ....

4. The Cost of Living
a. Rent & Food ....
b. Furniture & Appliances ....
c. Utilities ....
d. Car ....

Alatis on Acronyms

James Alatis

Part I

This article is the first of two parts which deal with TESOL, what it is as an organization and what it stands for, both its surface structure and its deep structure. This first part deals with the acronyms in and around the field, the surface of what we see and hear. The second part will deal more historically with the organization. This first part is excerpted in part from an article that appeared in INTERVIEW.

Education, like government, abounds with acronyms, and teaching ESL is no exception. They are handy labels for quick definition of areas of teaching and the organizations associated with them.

TESL—Teaching English as a Second Language is concerned with teaching English to non-native speakers who are parmanent residents in those countries where English is the first language—primarily immigrants.

TEFL—Teaching English as a Foreign Language is concerned with temporary residents as visitors, foreign students and diplomats in countries where English is the native language.

TEFB—Teaching English to the Foreign Born is a term that still has currency in some urban areas, but is now rapidly giving way to TESOL and TESL.

TESOL—Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages is a broad term which encompasses both TESL and TEFL. It is also, of course, the professional association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, an organization for ESOL teachers, bilingual educators, and teachers of standard English as a second dialect.

ATESL—Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language is a section of NAFSA, the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs. Its members are mostly academic people associated with college and university programs devoted to English training for foreign students and are involved in teacher-training programs in colleges and universities.

CIEP—Commission on Intensive English Programs works toward nationwide uniformity in intensive English programs. It also develops guidelines for colleges and university personnel on standard tests and what

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CUT ON BROKEN LINE

ACRONYMS

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to expect with regard to English proficiency on the part of foreign students.

CAL—Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC, is the largest clearinghouse on TESOL and other professional language teaching matters. It has a library, staff, and publications to assist teachers.

ERIC—Educational Resource Information Center, operated by CAL, has a clearing house for Linguistics funded by the U.S. Office of Education. It collects, processes and disseminates information on significant literature. Indexed and abstracted documents are available for a fee, on microfiche or hard copy. One of its functions is to clear material for the teaching of English as a foreign or second language.

HILT—High Intensive Language Training. A total immersion program designed to teach students a new language.

TOEFL—Test of English as a Foreign Language is a standardized test for foreign students entering this country to study. It is administered overseas by various universities and also in the United States.

NABE—National Association of Bilingual Educators.

NAPCAE—National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education.

There is also a list of initials which crop up in many instances of correspondence such as ELI, ELP, ALI, ALP, ELS, etc. which refer to various English or American Language Institutes, Programs, or Services.

II. Current Issues/State of the Art

TESOL — THE STATE OF THE ART TODAY

EDWARD J. CERVENKA
The University of Texas

The most significant development in TESOL in recent years has been the spreading realization among many practitioners of the art that many of its aspects and underlying axioms are amenable to controlled experimental study and should be so studied. In previous years the art of TESOL or TEFL was something which the practitioner learned on faith largely from the linguists. (This was particularly true for the large group of young people who were introduced to the art in Peace Corps training projects.) There was no particular reason or urgency to expend the time and effort to examine the consequences of alternative solutions to problems in TESOL by means of experimental designs. Also, there was a great neglect of many of the non-language factors involved in second-language teaching and learning, e. g., matters of aptitude, attitude, motivation, etc. Now, with the trend toward the decompartmentalization of the behavioral and social sciences, we find that more and more the crucial importance of these factors is recognized and attention is being given to them in teaching. There promises to be a flurry of development in the area of evaluative and measuring instruments for TESOL which will provide some of the indispensable tools for research. The new disciplines of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics show indication of making available within a decade or so, a substantial body of sound empirical data relating to the theory and practices of language teaching.

Generally, research efforts so far lend qualified support to the axioms underlying the "audio-lingual" approach and to the importance of learning a second language by means of controlled and patterned intensive vocal practice. However, it seems to many that the theoretical model of second-language learning implicit in the audio-lingual approach is an over-simplification. Such a model does not tell us much about how an individual learns the most interesting and "creative" part of a language, i. e., the complex system of syntactic rules which underlies the native speaker's ability to produce an infinite number of sentences. The learning behavior which teaching seeks to elicit can be viewed as a continuum ranging from highly controlled, manipulative practice to spontaneous, self-generated communication. Where the conventional audio-lingual doctrine is weak is with regard to the transition the learner must make from manipulation to communication. For this latter stage of second-language acquisition more language analysis seems to be called for in teaching and not merely learning by analogy. However, this is by no means a retreat to the grammar-translation method. Previously the danger was that TESOL methodology might become overly-rigid. It is a safe assessment that that danger no longer exists today. Comprehensive experimental study promises to subject the theory and practice of TESOL to critical examination and validation.

Perhaps the greatest single stimulus to basic research in TESOL has been the Federal Government's support of compensatory educational programs for socially disadvantaged children in the elementary and secondary grades. In most cases some sort of language training forms the bulk of these programs. There is more and more recognition of the fact that many of these children speak a language other than English as a native language or a non-standard, local, but somewhat viable dialect of English and that such children must be taught English—Standard English—as a second language or dialect. In such programs we note a continuing struggle between the "creativists" and the "correctionists". The former emphasize the importance of children being "verbal" in any language or dialect (for the sake of the child's individual development) and the latter emphasize the importance of learning and using only a socially acceptable variety of English (for the sake of providing the child with a means of social mobility). This point of debate seems largely a specious one. The soundest approach seems to some to place the emphasis on, and train for, *bilingualism* or *bi-dialectalism*. Compensatory language programs with this goal should probably include two separate components: one which gives the child an opportunity to learn the patterns and sounds of standard middle-class English through controlled and systematic vocal practice—not by correction of a few shibboleths—and another component which allows the child to be verbal and expressive in his native language or dialect. These two forms of language the child would learn would be appropriate for the two social spheres in which he must function: his home and neighborhood on the one hand, and his school and community on the other. Any attempt to teach only one form of language and ignore or repress the other is likely to result in alienation of such children, either from home or school. There is no strong reason to believe that the inherent capabilities of children will not allow them to achieve competence in two or more dialects or languages at the same time.

Many other areas of TESOL show promise. Programmed learning's application of TESOL is still in its exploratory stages but shows promise as a means of individualizing instruction, particularly for the advanced stage of second language acquisition. Language laboratories have demonstrated their usefulness, but not their absolute necessity in learning. A naive view of the language lab still prevails. Too often the language lab is viewed as a means of eliminating the work of teaching or as a substitute for the teacher. Actually, to integrate a lab effectively into a program requires more work and planning. Very likely the next important innovation will be the further elaboration of visual components of language laboratories.

The field of culture continues to be the most neglected part of TESOL. Everyone takes as a matter of principle that the purpose of teaching and studying a second language is to know the culture — the way of life — of the native-speaking users. There is a realization that mastery of language involves mastery of the meaning of language forms, which is essentially culture. There is a somewhat nebulous conviction among teachers that culture—the patterns of behavior, thought and feeling of native speakers—must be systematically internalized very much as a language must be internalized. As yet little advance has been made on how to go about teaching the culture of the English-speaking peoples as a "second" culture. Too often this is treated in the classroom

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TESOL — TODAY

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in an overly-intellectualized manner. You teach something about history, music, art, literature, politics, customs, etc. What is needed is a systematic approach for teaching the learner all those things that a native member of a culture knows intuitively and which allows him to function adequately as a member of a culture.

Keeping informed of current developments in TESOL has become a formidable task, as in other areas. Many good books and journals are readily available, but there is a considerable amount of TESOL literature, particularly instructional materials and reports on research, which reach only limited audiences. Fortunately steps are being taken to cope with the information explosion in TESOL. In 1967 the Center for Applied Linguistics became the clearing house for the national Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). It collects, reviews, and evaluates current publications in TESOL. One can hope that this Center will speed up the dissemination of information, possibly cut down on wasteful duplication of efforts and materials, and facilitate an integrated experimental study of the art of TESOL.

Vol. 2 No. 1-2

THE TENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF LINGUISTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

WILLIAM F. MARQUARDT
University of Illinois

Anyone expecting to find at the Tenth International Congress of Linguists a great deal of attention devoted to the immediate problems of improving the use of language for communication would have been disappointed. Of the 600 or so papers abstracted for pre-Congress publication, only a small portion made any reference to concern about using knowledge regarding the way language can be analyzed for the purpose of increasing the competence of the users of language. If to the usual three-partite division of the study of language—syntactics (study of the relation of signs to signs); semantics (study of the relation of signs to referents); and pragmatics (study of the relation of signs to users of signs)—a fourth could be added—study of the ways of bringing about competence in new language behavior, it must be said that there were relatively few papers at the Tenth International Congress devoted to this fourth division of language study.

If we define a science as an activity in which human beings interact in established ways with a particular kind of phenomena for the purpose of increasing their power to interpret, predict, and control events in which those phenomena are a key factor, then the question of the extent to which the Tenth International Congress of Linguists at Bucharest was concerned with improving mankind's efficiency in interlingual or cross-culture communication is an appropriate one. Although there are other sciences involved in the improvement of cross-culture communication, such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, and even physics (acoustics) and physiology (articulatory phonetics) linguistics deals with the most central elements that must be manipulated in the cross-culture communication transaction. For teachers of English as a second language, it is most natural to ask what can be gleaned of particular significance to their work from the Tenth International Congress of Linguists that met in Bucharest August 28—September 2 and from the Sixth International Congress of Phonetics Sciences that met in Prague September 7 to 13. Though I attended both congresses, I feel that assessment of the second congress is a big enough task to be done independently of this one; so I will leave it for a later time.

The most important contribution to the teaching of English as a second language that the two linguistic congresses in Central Europe made was to underscore a well-known fact—that English is the language behavior that will elicit the greatest diversity of responses in any international gathering. For persons in nonlinguistic pursuits to use English in international gatherings can be explained as due, partly at least, to their finding it natural to use the language of the countries with the greatest technological output and the most far-flung industrial, commercial, and political establishment. For linguists, however, who are generally fluent in a number of languages and hence have some choice as to which language to use in an international gathering, to choose English almost two to one over the second choice is a significant fact.

A look at the *Abstracts*, published on the eve of the Congress of Linguists in Bucharest reveals that of the 598 papers summarized, 235 were presented in English, 144 in French, 123 in Russian, 78 in German, 12 in Spanish, and 6 in Italian. Of the 235 papers presented in English, 77, or about one third of them, were presented by scholars from a variety of nonnative-English-speaking countries, such as Japan, Holland, Sweden and even from such countries as France, Germany, aind Russia, whose languages were in substantial use at the congresses.

Of the 144 papers presented in French, the next most frequently used language, the proportion of those presented by nonnative speakers in Bucharest was higher than it was in the case of English, but for a special reason. The number of scholars registered from the host country, Roumania, was far greater than that from any other country and most of the Roumanian scholars used French, the foreign language that had been most widely taught in the schools of Roumania for decades for cultural and historical reasons.

In Prague, where French is less entrenched than in Bucharest, the number of papers presented in French (50) was less than that for Russian (74) and German (73) as compared to the number of those presented in English (169) out of the total number of 373 represented in the *Abstracts*.

With respect to the use of Russian, the third most frequently used language at these congresses, only a small proportion of those using it were nonnative speakers. German, which was used by only about two-thirds as many speakers as Russian, nevertheless had a higher proportion of nonnative speakers using it. A number of Russians of considerable renown in linguistic circles in their own country presented their papers in French or English rather than in their own language. Dr. Olga Akhmanova, one of the four plenary-session speakers, a leading Russian authority on the use of computer technology in linguistics, spoke in English in her plenary address "Linguistics and the Quantitative Approach," and in her numerous comments from the floor, though she demonstrated that she could have spoken as gracefully in French or German as well as in Russian.

The fact that Russian scholars do not need to demonstrate linguistic chauvinism to maintain their status in their country—that they are even encouraged to use English rather than Russian in international conferences—does not indicate that they are subordinating their culture or their ideology to those of the English-speaking people. They are showing they have learned what many native speakers of English have not learned: that English is not the language of a single culture or people, that English belongs to everyone and can be used to fight the English-speaking nations as effectively as to cooperate with them.

An incident at the Congress at Bucharest illustrates this fact. I happened to pick up by mistake the folder of another linguist and I found in it a four-page printed flyleaf containing an appeal in English from a committee of the Viet Cong to the "Linguists of the

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World" to condemn the American government for killing innocent Vietnamese women and children.

The fact that I could not find another copy of the appeal and that I did not overhear during the entire Congress any reference to that appeal or to Vietnam, despite the fact we were in a communist country and outnumbered by the communist participants, suggests that English has become a neutral instrument of communication neither protecting the English-speaking world nor unduly exposing it to the demands and slanders of the non-English-speaking world. The fact that the Russians are teaching English in their literacy campaigns in Africa and Asia and even in their cultural centers in Latin American countries like Chile makes them beings whose self-abnegation we admire and would like to emulate and at the same time strategists whose sophistication makes them formidable opponents in any crucial showdown.

Having spent a great deal of time discussing the implications to be derived from the language behavior demonstrated at the recent European linguistic congresses we can now turn to the contents of the messages that were passed back and forth and see what we can identify in them that can affect the thinking and practices of TESLs in the years ahead. Let's try to identify the attitudes, the theoretical concepts or insights, the skills or techniques, and the habits or practices that TESLs are likely to extract from the welter of presentations.

Let me digress here to say that if you are disturbed by the seeming amorphousness of American conferences you may be even more bewildered by the sprawling nature of an international congress like that which took place at Bucharest. The hotels were some distance from the buildings of Bucharest University at which the plenary sessions and section meetings were held. These buildings were also some distance apart. Consequently, despite the fact that there were some 600 papers to choose from to attend, the restraints upon one's power of choice were considerable. To add to the problem, sometimes after struggling over the choice between two speakers scheduled in different sections for the same hour, I found the speaker chosen had failed to register. If the chairman of the session was a local scholar, generally a member of the Linguistic Institute of Bucharest—and this happened to be the case at most of the section meetings I attended—the gap in time caused by the failure of a scheduled speaker to appear was kept unfilled so that a certain semblance of control over the schedule could be maintained.

In my section meeting, for example, which was under the category of papers labeled *Varia*, and which was scheduled for Wednesday, August 30, from 3:00 p.m. to 4:30 p.m., the first speaker, a professor Armand Jerjean (President of the American Institute of Languages and Research, N. Y.), whose topic was "A New Approach to the Teaching of Foreign Languages," failed to appear. I was to be the second speaker. Gerald Fleming of the University of Surrey, London, with the topic "The Didactic Organization of Pictorial Reality in the New Modern Language Teaching Media" was to be the third. Because I knew my paper was longer than it ought to be if there was to be any kind of discussion afterward and since there was a room full of people waiting, I begged the chairman to let me start before 3:30 pointing out that I could then present the first part of the paper which I had planned to cut out in order to allow more time for discussion. He graciously refused saying that it would not be fair to those persons who might come just to hear me and would find they had missed some concepts integral to a full understanding of the paper. I was a bit disappointed but I had no convincing counter argument to offer.

I hope I have succeeded by injecting a few notes of realism in showing that it would be most presumptious and unconvincing for any participant to try to assess on the basis of his own observations the impact of such a congress on any area of life. With such a reservation in mind, let us proceed first to suggest some fairly new attitudes signalled by certain papers that may trickle down to TESLs, if they have not already anticipated them intuitively—as artists so frequently anticipate the formulations of scientists, particularly in the behavioral sciences.

First, let me give you a glimpse of the categories under which the papers submitted to the Planning Committee were classified. They were as follows: I. Language Theory; II. Sociolinguistics; III. Linguistic Geography; IV. History of Linguistics; V. Semantics; VI. Syntax; VII. Poetics; VIII. The Child's Acquisition of Speech; IX. Psycholinguistics; X. Stylistics; XI. Language Typology; XII. Language Pathology; XIII. Varia. According to a published *Third Circular Letter* of the Organizing Committee, by July 15, 690 proposals for papers had been submitted. Professor Jorgu Jordan, President of the Organizing Committee, told me personally that by the opening date of the Congress more than 800 proposals for papers had been submitted. Of the total number of papers proposed, I have been able to assess only 598 which appeared in the 439-page volume of *Abstracts* issued on the opening day of the Congress. These 598 I have already analyzed from the standpoint of the language in which each abstract was presented. One cannot be sure, of course, whether they were presented orally in the language used in the abstract.

One cannot be sure either without consulting the Organizing Committee which papers of those abstracted were actually presented or how many papers not represented in the *Abstracts* were presented at the Congress. This information will be available when the proceedings of the Congress are published by the Academy of the SR of Roumania (ISCE "Cartimex," Bucharest, P.O.B. 134-135, telex 226) in September, 1968.

Let us proceed to identify the attitudes generated by the Congress at Bucharest that will have a bearing on TESL:

1. The first attitude is one already discussed——the deepening of the feeling that English is bound to have an ever-widening influence not only in scholarly cross-culture interaction but also in the exchange of technological information.

2. The second important attitude generated is also one already discussed—that there is no longer any feeling of resistance to the use of English for the sake of national pride. Russians, Frenchmen, and Germans presented papers in English even though their languages were in substantial use at the Congress.

3. A third attitude of importance that was expressed frequently—partic-

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ularly by Professor Olga Akhmanova—is that language teachers of the future should know more about the complex world of phonetic frequencies; of phonological and syntactical distribution; and lexical forms, frequencies and fields that the linguist is exploring with instruments and with computers so that he will be able to determine their relationship to the acquisition of competence in language behavior.

4. A fourth attitude generated which is somewhat of a reaction to the previous one and hence has less support is the feeling that linguists and language teachers must be more aware of language behavior as interaction between individuals and systems with feedback, both immediate and anticipated, affecting the selecting, the shaping, the encoding, and the transmitting of messages. Among the few papers that gave support to this attitude are those that derive their basic model from communication theory, such as my paper "Criteria for Selecting Literary Texts for Teaching Cross-Culture Communication Especially in English as a Second Language"; L. S. Harms, "Social Dialect and Speech Communication Proficiency"; Bernard Th. Tervoort, "Language Development of Deaf Children," (where longitudinal studies of totally deaf students interacting shows them developing simultaneously "syntactic capacity and a certain independence of speech and language").

5. A fifth attitude generated which was given some support by a few papers is that linguists and TESLs must exploit technology more fully to improve cross-culture communication. Papers which tried to stimulate this attitude are those by Gerald Fleming, "The Didactic Organization of Pictorial Reality in New Modern Language Teaching Media," and Juan Estarellas, "A Psycholinguistic Model for Second Language Learning: New Prospects for Programmed Instruction."

With regard to theoretical concepts expressed at the Congress that are likely to make an increasing impact on TESLs in the next five years the following were among the most frequently expressed:

1. That transformation-generative grammar offers a good basis for providing learners both insights into the structures of English and a systematic way of gaining competence in using them (John R. Ross, "Gapping and the Order of Constituents"; Jane J. Robinson, "A Dependency Based Transformational Grammar").

2. That two languages may be compared structurally at all levels by using a calculus which will show the distance and degree of interference between the two languages and that this can be the basis for teaching strategy (W. F. Mackey, "A Calculus of Language Differences").

3. That sociolinguistic studies can be the basis of understanding of the relationships between the linguistic patterns and social situations—an understanding that should underlie teaching strategies ((Stanley Lieberman, "Linguistic Diversity in the Union of South Africa"; Telete Zarayda Lawrence, "Regional Speech of Texas: A Description of Certain Paralinguistic Features"; Samir-Kumar Ghosh, "Language and Politics in India").

4. That the acquisition of language depends for mastery of the concept of "appropriateness" upon interaction in live situations and the use of feedback (Leonard Newmark, "Principles of Language Acquisition").

5. That the model the language-learner of TESL should use ought not to be that of the linguist but rather a fusion of it with that of the sociologist, the psychologist, and the anthropologist (Robert F. Roeming, "A Model of the Language-Learner in Relation to Linguistic Theory").

6. That semiotic theory can help the TESL supplement his use of linguistic theory in developing teaching strategies (E. Shubin, "The General Principles of Semiography").

The skills or techniques of possible use to the TESL in the next five years generated by the Congress at Bucharest are difficult to identify at this point because few papers reflected concern about practical applications. But here are a few that may be worth noting:

1. To make use of programmed instruction which will produce monds or tacts rather than merely reinforcing choice, textual, dictation or intraverbal responses (Juan Estarellas, "A Psycholinguistic Model for Second Language Learning: New Prospects for Programmed Instruction").

2. To select reading materials that will help the ESL learner to develop competence in cross-culture interaction and communication (W. F. Marquardt, "Criteria for Selecting Literary Texts for Teaching Cross-Culture Communication, Especially in English as a Second Language").

3. To make "pictorial reality" in TESL courses psychologically, semantically, culturally and hence pedagogically effective (Gerald Fleming, E. Spaleny, "The Didactic Organization of Pictorial Reality in the New Modern Language Teaching Media").

4. To make proper use of international words in the expansion of the ESL learner's vocabulary (V. V. Akulenko, "Some Problems of the Internationalization of Vocabularies").

5. To make effective use of correspondence course techniques for the teaching of particular skills in particular registers through supplementing them with the use of radio, phonograph and tape recorders (Evan Loukashenko, "To the Question of the Study of the Foreign Languages by Correspondence Learners in Technical Schools").

From this highly selective and impressionistic list, derived from attending sessions, informal conversation, and skimming of the *Abstracts*, of attitudes, concepts, and skills that a TESL might find being brought to his attention increasingly in the next five years as a consequence of the Tenth International Congress of Linguists, one can see there will be much for the TESL to digest and to try out when the proceedings of the Congress come out next September.

If we ask what the 1,600-plus linguists from all over the world left undone at the Congress that would have been of help to the TESL in the 70's the obvious answer is description and analysis of the language behavior that is being increasingly transmitted across national boundaries, oceans, and continents. Not a single paper in the *Abstracts* was devoted to a description of the variations of register, structural signals, style, and dialect that distinguish language behavior on the telephone, televideo, and television from other kinds of language behavior. That the TESL can use such information as humanity becomes more and more electronically linked goes without saying. If he wants to develop effectively programmed interaction

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over these media between his students and all willing informants in English, he will need more reliable information about the behavior most effective on these media than he has now.

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THE PRICE OF ACCOUNTABILITY IN ENGLISH*

Michael F. Shugrue

Thanks to the generosity of the Executive Council of the Modern Language Association, I am currently on sabbatical leave, ostensibly writing about the novel in Eighteenth Century England, but in fact worrying with you and with other educators throughout the United States about the current crisis in education in our country. Yet the things I worry about—and I shall share some of them with you—also give me cause for guarded optimism about the fate of the humanities in the 1970's.

Because we form so large a part of the educational establishment and are, therefore, specially vulnerable to the pressures affecting it, those of us who teach the uses of language have particular reasons to fret about the current state of affairs. Because what we do—build power with language and train the imagination—is central to survival in our increasingly technological society, we have a great obligation to provide the leadership which can help to draw our schools and colleges out of the deepest educational recession in modern times.

Trying to continue my scholarly work at home in Manhattan, I am distracted by reports of the huge deficits anticipated by New York City's private universities, by the mounting New York City school budgetary crisis, and by news that the State University of New York has announced a freeze on hiring and a one year moratorium on research leaves.

My mail brings reports that the proposed budget for California will eliminate sabbatical and other research leaves, that the Michigan legislature hopes once again this session to mandate higher teaching loads, that the majority of property owners now believe that the most effective way to protest increasing tax loads is to defeat school bond issues, whatever the cost to students and to education, and that both undergraduate and graduate enrollments in English and in the foreign languages seem to be substantially down this year.

Without dwelling on these grim realities, we can say with certainty that the academic year 1970-1971 is the most significant year for education in America since 1957-1958 ushered us into the era

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*An address delivered at the TESOL annual meeting in New Orleans, 6 March 1971.

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Price of Accountability

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of Sputnik, expansion, and a decade of unparalleled interest in and support of education at every level. We can hope that a new decade of profound change in the teaching and learning of language can be generated by the pressures on us now, as they were once before.

I have observed three principal reactions to today's changing educational climate. Some of my colleagues, many at the university level, either do not yet know what is going on around them in school districts and state legislatures or try ineffectively to justify even the obsolete parts of the curriculum. Many teachers at every level are suffering from a malaise, a "what went wrong" attitude, that has sunk morale in the teaching profession to the lowest level I can recall. A few teachers have already begun sorting through the wreckage, looking for causes and for answers, starting to build new concepts and procedures into traditional ways of helping young people gain command of and power with language.

I worry least about the first group. Social and economic realities will soon make painful truths about public support for education apparent both to complacent and to overly defensive teachers and professors. One example may suffice to illustrate my point. When a college department of English adopts an unstructured major, as is more and more frequently the case, enrollments in courses covering works written before 1900 decline noticeably, except for courses in Shakespeare. When Professor X finds that he has fewer and fewer students, he will recognize that times have changed. As teaching loads and assignments are tied more and more closely to systematically determined instructional costs and measured evaluation of performance, he will adjust or face the possible loss of tenure and even of employment. Such a fate is not my Orwellian nightmare, but rather a recognition that simply "putting in time" is no longer to be considered sufficient reason for guaranteeing employment in education. The teacher of the 70's will not be asked to abandon his scholarly interests or special courses, but he will be required to take a more professional interest in student needs and in the mastery of his art of teaching.

Similarly, the unknowing or defensive school teacher facing performance certification and evaluation will have full opportunity to develop rewardable professional skills. Our plight in education, after all, has never been and is not now–despite all the talk about a surplus of teachers–that we have produced too many qualified professionals for the school and college classrooms, especially in such crucial areas as ESL and TESOL–but that we have produced too few.

I am, however, deeply concerned about my second group, teachers suffering from a disturbing malaise which breeds self doubts and impairs professional performance. It is indeed difficult to hold one's head up high in the face of the maliciousness and intensity of some of the popular and professional attacks on our schools and colleges. Charles Silberman, to give just one example from many, surveys the schools and is indignant and "appalled by the mutilation visible everywhere," but especially in the junior high schools, the so-called "wasteland–one is tempted to say cesspool–of American education."[1]

We must, of course, admit our failures and work to improve education, but we must also recognize some of the accomplishments of the past decade–especially in the teaching and learning of language. We can, it is fair to note, claim that we have as a nation demonstrated a commitment to education in the last ten years greater than any other nation on earth. Since 1960 we have added more than ten million students to the schools and more than doubled the number of college students. We have educated and brought into the schools more than a million new teachers. Nearly 77% of all young people now finish high school and nearly 60% of those enter a degree-credit program in a college or university, more and more of them in one of the over 600 junior or community collleges established since 1962. The number of black students completing at least a secondary education has quadrupled since 1940 (from 12% to 56%). We have more than doubled expenditures on education since 1960.[2]

In the study of language teaching we have undergone a decade of exacting scrutiny. The Curriculum Study and Demonstration Centers and other federally-supported programs, for example, have worked a minor revolution in the school curriculum and contributed noticeably to increased cooperation between school and college faculty. It is not entirely fair to object in retrospect that these programs did not do enough, that they placed too great emphasis on content, that they reached too few teachers.

The many national studies of the teaching in English and of the modern foreign languages and of teacher education in these areas have given our professions a far more exact picture of who we are and what we do than any other profession can claim.[3] We are not now and we have not for many years been leading unexamined professional lives. If we remember where we were in 1957, we can take some pride in where we are now.

I hope that I am no more Pollyannish than I am Orwellian. We have serious problems to resolve, problems of which we are reminded all too often these days by our fellow educators, legislators, students, taxpayers, and our own consciences. But to succumb to the malaise that threatens us is to undermine our own ability to work at our problems and to improve our teaching.

My third group, those developing new programs and new approaches to the teaching and learning of language which build upon what has gone before, already recognizes the external pressures which now and for the immediate future will affect education and influence the reforms of teacher education and of the curriculum.

Two external forces–the money squeeze and public awareness of education, the first accelerating rapidly since 1969, the second building all through the 60's–have converged in the last two years. Neither promises to go away in the next few years. For the first we share little of the blame; for the second we can claim both some credit and some blame. Allow me to comment briefly on the two before turning to six major educational influences which we can expect to contribute to curriculum design in the 1970's.

Federal expenditures for education remain very high, but inflation, the recession, the war in Vietnam, the urgent needs of our cities, and the ecological movement combine to drain away additional support. Although the federal government has maintained a high (if sometimes misguided) support for most of education, state and local governments have already begun making the cuts and cutbacks to which we can all give testimony. Pennsylvania only belatedly in 1971 appropriated the funds for its colleges and universities to finish the 1970-1971 school year. California college teachers face the possibility of a second year with salary increases. One New England state has announced its decision to limit new spending on education in order to pay the growing costs of welfare and has defended this decision by reminding its citizens that effective education cannot take place when students have neither food nor clothing.

Because dollars must stretch farther, state legislatures are asking educational institutions to defend the appropriations they receive, to become, in other words, accountable under something like a Planning, Programming, Budgetary System. Legislators–hard-pressed to find adequate revenues for state services–have every right to ask schools and colleges to be accountable. But their call for accountability can lead–and has already done so in some states–to unconscionable interference with academic freedom and to mounting hostility between legis-

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lators and educators.

In cities and towns across America, the property tax has been stretched as far as it can legally go. New revenues simply are not available to schools. Indeed, the defeat of 56.4% of the value of all bond issues in the United States as early as 1968-69 clearly indicates the frustration of the American homeowner.[4] We can look for revenue sharing of some kind, but we must recognize that new demands—a better welfare system, urban housing, a cleaner environment—are going to receive the lion's share of new dollars, however they are generated. After nearly fifteen years of almost total taxpayer support for education at every level, our schools and colleges are going to have to learn to trim their sails. That may be a sad fact, but it is one which we must acknowledge as we plan for the 70's.

Public awareness of, involvement with, and even disenchantment with education are also potent forces in our current situation. We can claim some of the credit for this involvement because we have worked hard to interest the public in education. We worked hard to gain public support and we succeeded admirably for a decade in bringing more Americans of every age and background into our schools and universities. Indeed, more than a quarter of the American population is directly involved with education today as student, teacher, administrator, or school board member.[5]

Education is now news; it was far less so twenty years ago. But the fact that education is news also leads to disenchantment as the public watches with dismay the tangles of community control, open admissions, teacher strikes, and the greatly exaggerated student riots in American colleges in the past five years. Public taxpayer backlash is very much with us today. Although highly charged with emotion, it is often justified by the economic hardship brought on by spiraling taxes in a period of inflation. The racial hatred and misunderstanding, however, can be countered over the next ten years, largely by effective teachers and administrators throughout the educational system. School programs that work can overcome the prejudices against real, responsible community participation in education. Effective college programs, especially in the two-year colleges, can provide educational opportunities for vast numbers of citizens who now criticize higher education for its irrelevance.

Money and public opinion are now arrayed against us as we plan for next year, for the next decade. Our programs are squeezed, our jobs uncertain, our perquisites under attack, our students often disenchanted with us and with all of education. We, however, can catch our breaths and start in again with the same energy and ingenuity our profession showed in the post-Sputnik era. To do so, I believe, demands that we legitimize and utilize six major forces affecting education. All of these forces require that college and university teachers learn to work more closely and more regularly with one another. I should like to comment on the six: (1) the concept of open admissions, (2) student participation in academic governance, (3) the impact of media and technology, (4) the changing job market, (5) the Doctor of Arts and other alternatives to the traditional degree structure, and (6) the drive for accountability and evaluation.

(1) The concept of open admissions.

In New York City, the sixteen branches of the City College System brought 35,000 freshmen into college in 1970-71, 15,000 of them students who would otherwise have been disenfranchised from the resources of the City System by poverty and by the inequities of a gigantic, creaking school system which has at least unconsciously discriminated against the Black, Puerto Rican, and Mexican American.

By measure of tests administered in 1970, 50% of the freshmen needed some remedial work in reading and 51% needed some remedial instruction in mathematics. Indeed, according to the tests, 10% of the freshman class needed *intensive* remedial instruction in reading.[6]

But open admissions—the right of every high school graduate to try his hand at college work—has been severely and publicly criticized. Some critics, like Vice President Agnew, have argued that "our traditional four-year institutions" should not "lower their sights or their standards for the sole purpose of opening their doors wider." "Any attempt to subordinate the great universities of this country to social goals, for which they are ill-designed and ill-equipped," he comments, "can only result in tragic loses to both these institutions and the nation."[7] I would note that the Vice President joins such distinguished academicians as Sidney Hook of New York University in arguing that four-year colleges and universities have traditional, primarily intellectual, obligations to transmit and to extend the boundaries of knowledge which cannot be jeopardized in our increasingly technological, complex, society. These commentators believe that the admission of large numbers of enthusiastic, but non-academically oriented high school graduates endangers the traditional academic goals of the nearly 1,300 four-year colleges and universities in the United States.

The Vice President also warns against "the growing militancy of increasing numbers of students who confuse social ideals with educational opportunities" (p. 107) and against concentrations of disoriented students who "create an immense potential for disorder" (p. 110). "The cluttering of our universities—already too large in many cases—through the insertion of high school level semesters for the accommodation of those unqualified for the traditional curriculum," he notes, "is a major cause of campus inefficiency and unrest" (p. 110).

I would argue that despite the student disorders which affected some colleges and universities, legitimate grievances about the elitism, privatism, irrelevance—even racism—of much of higher education cannot be answered by continuing to deny educational opportunities to young people who must become the leaders and the responsible citizens of tomorrow.

Mr. Agnew correctly proclaims that our colleges and universities, seats of the intellectual and humanistic life of the nation, cannot be subjected to irrational violence and cannot be turned into the central forums for debate on pressing political issues. In stressing the need to maintain peace, stability, and an atmosphere conducive to intellectual and aesthetic life on campus, however, he has ignored the insensitivity, ineffectiveness, and sterility of much of the traditional curriculum. As William Birenbaum has argued in *Overlive: Power, Poverty, and the University*, "The confrontation between the educational power centers and the other major centers of power in society has become inevitable, making the detachment, isolation, or disengagement of the university no longer possible."[8]

The distinguished educator Harold Taylor adds, "If the colleges and universities are to act as educating communities rather than public utilities without a point of view, they must come to terms with the contemporary world, and come to terms intellectually with the student left and the black-power movement, and not act as if both were populated entirely by opportunistic manipulators and strong-arm organizers."[9] Taylor worries that if "the colleges and universities continue the present pace of their slow adaptation to the legitimate educational demands of the disadvantaged, black *and* white, they will find themselves outrun by events and changes over which they have no control" (pp. 42-43).

But open admissions in any urban college or university demands a faculty both dedicated to teaching young people and willing to reorder many of its priorities and to modify significantly its traditional reward structure. It demands, moreover, greater respect for educational research, for sound pedagogy, and for college-school cooperation. And it demands new ways of relating the life of the

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college to the life of the community, of integrating work experience with academic experience, of bringing into the academic hierachy persons from schools, business, and communities who can help to design and teach the range of programs needed to meet students of varying backgrounds and abilities.

(2) Student participation in academic governance.

Despite much talk about the student's role in the school or college community, little has yet really been achieved. Nine out of ten colleges, to be sure, say that students have a right to a voice in shaping educational policies, but, as Earl McGrath reports in *Should Students Share the Power,* "it would be a mistake to conclude that because students do increasingly participate in the deliberations and actions of some institutional committees, they have now gained a position of decisive or even strong influence in the bodies concerned with basic educational policies." As he observes, "Means must be found to formalize the students' participation in the making of academic policy, to regularize their contribution, and to involve them as initiators of, rather than as the protestors against, policy."[10] Some faculties, working with students, have already taken steps which show the direction of the 70's: the elimination or reduction of departmental and divisional requirements, unstructured majors, the development of broad interdisciplinary programs, radical revisions of the school calendar, more independent study, new roles for the student as tutor or paraprofessional, and joint inquiry by student and teacher. All these steps bode well, I think, for our future in the study of language.

(3) The impact of media and technology.

"Americans now have their television sets operating more than forty-five hours each week, five to ten hours more than they work."[11] Next to sleeping, in fact, watching television seems to be the principal occupation of the typical citizen of the latter third of our century. Our school and college curriculum, however, does not reflect this reality. We have, in fact, been guilty as professionals concerned with the uses of language of mere tokenism in this area. The implications for restructuring courses and course sequences are far-reaching.

James E. Miller, Jr., former president of the NCTE, has aptly called for the English profession "to declare our own war on poverty—on poverty of the imagination."[12] "At stake in such an effort," he continues, "is not only the traditional view of language as a means of communication but also the new concept of language as a means—in all its imaginative manifestations—to self-definition and self-realization." Current ethnic and cultural confrontations involving differences in cultural values and the extensive development of non-linguistic media for image making and communication, such as television, should lead us to recognize a pressing need to re-examine and, if necessary, to re-define the traditional place of both oral and written language in the symbolic process, which lies at the heart of all that human beings feel and think and do.

Any faculty undertaking this examination will need to analyze the relationship of language and literature to other forms of imaginative expression (television, film, advertising, for example) and to other studies of man, his values, and his achievements (history and anthropology, for example). It will need to develop the philosophical rationale for a curriculum which can regenerate the now rapidly fragmenting and decaying programs of education in the liberal arts—a curriculum that probes deeply into the sources and processes of language, thought, imagination, and symbolic form. It will need to work out interdisciplinary programs which bring language and literature into their full cultural relationship with the other humanistic studies and the social sciences. And it will need to discover and implement the orientations and the classroom, departmental, and institutional structures best suited to a time of critical change. I can think of no more important nor exciting challenge than to accomplish these goals.

(4) The changing job market.

Hard times are here for teachers of English and of the foreign languages, not because there are no jobs but because our college and university departments have been educating teachers to do the wrong things. The MLA-ADE study of the job market published in the November 1970 *ADE Bulletin* clearly showed that in the colleges the greatest needs over the next five years will not be for specialists in traditional literary fields but for teachers committed to such fields as freshman composition, comparative or world literature, linguistics--broadly defined—general undergraduate courses, and reading (p. 12).[13] Moreover, women academicians are only beginning to take their rightful place in higher education.[14]

The changing job market will hit graduate departments hardest; many will be forced to eliminate or drastically reduce their offerings. The declining market will, as Allan Cartter has shown, also build a greater sense of institutional loyalty among what has been for many years a profession of nomads.[15] In addition, the changing market will bring radical and welcome reforms to undergraduate and graduate teacher training programs. Our professions may finally face up to what we have really always known—we are teachers first of all and must perfect our art of teaching. In cooperation with schools and junior and community colleges, four-year colleges and graduate institutions have special obligations to design, for example, innovative internship programs for prospective school and college teachers. Again, I see these changes as positive forces for our professional vitality.

(5) The Doctor of Arts and other alternatives to traditional degree structures.

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education has not only endorsed the concept of teaching doctorate—the D.A. as an equivalent to the Ph.D. as the final earned degree in a field, but has recommended that students be awarded a degree after the successful completion of each two years of college work, that at least two years of college education he "banked" for every citizen to draw upon at any time in his life, and that there be a freer flow into and out of college.[16] These recommendations, which seem certain to become realities in the 1970's, suggest the need for reconsideration of curricular offerings.

The Doctor of Arts, also endorsed by the Council of Graduate Schools, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, and the Office of Education, and now being considered by more than fifty universities, will, among its other effects, speed the reform of the Ph.D. It will also give heightened importance to internships in schools, state education agencies, professional associations, and junior and community colleges. It will speed the introduction of interdisciplinary work into colleges and later into the schools. It will force a reconsideration of the function of the programs for the Master of Arts, the M.A.T., and the doctorate in education. It will, in other words, rock the boat, as it well should—for the boat needs rocking.

(6) The drive for accountability and evaluation.

We need not become specialists in systems analysis or Pentagon whiz kids in order to become more accountable to our students, taxpayers, legislators, and to ourselves. Closing our eyes to the national call for schools and colleges to measure the effectiveness of what they do is the greatest threat to the vitality—perhaps even the survival—of our disciplines. The so-called "craze" for accountability and evaluation may pass, but it is with us now and it can claim to help those who pay the bills know where the money goes, to help students know what is expected of them, to give students greater individualization of instruction, and to help teachers

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understand more clearly what they want to accomplish in a course.

If we in the languages do not develop our performance criteria for those segments of our fields susceptible to such criteria–as J.N. Hook of the Tri-State University project has tried to do–,[17] if we do not articulate the reasons why the most important segments of what we teach can be measured only over the long term and not quantifiably, we shall have someone else's system imposed on us. Faculties must find ways to justify in humanistic terms the incredibly important things they do for students.

Evaluation, so terribly informal in most schools and on most college campuses, can become more systematic without jeopardizing academic freedom, as recent publications by Kenneth Eble and Richard Larson have shown.[18] To develop effective, humanistic, nonthreatening evaluation techniques, more institutions will have to establish, as Northwestern University has already done, centers for the study of ways to improve instruction. Once again, if we do not take the leadership in our fields, it will be taken by those who do not know the importance of what we do.

In the area of accountability and evaluation, as in the other five areas I have discussed, our professions have priceless opportunities to make the 1970's the most exciting period of curriculum change those of us who teach the power and beauty of language have ever known.

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[1] Charles Silberman, *Crisis in the Classroom* (New York: Random House, 1970), pp. 10, 324.

[2] See "The Magnitude of the American Educational Establishment 1960-1970," *Saturday Review* (19 September 1970), p. 67, and *Population Characteristics: Educational Attainment March 1969,* published by the U.S. Department of Commerce/Bureau of the Census (19 February 1970), p. 1.

[3] For a report on the Curriculum Study Centers and the major national studies in English, see Michael F. Shugrue, *English in a Decade of Change* (New York: Pegasus, 1968).

[4] See *Bond Sale for Public School Purposes, 1968-1969,* published by the USOE (1970).

[5] See "The Magnitude of the American Educational Establishment 1960-1970," p. 67.

[6] *New York Times* (14 September 1970).

[7] Spiro T. Agnew, "Toward a 'Middle Way' in College Admissions," *Educational Record* (Spring 1970), pp. 107, 109.

[8] *Overlive: Power, Poverty, and the University* (New York: Dell, 1969), p. 119.

[9] *Students Without Teachers: The Crisis in the University* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969), p. 42.

[10] *Should Students Share the Power?* (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1970), pp. 45, 50.

[11] Silberman, p. 32.

[12] "The Linguistic Imagination," *College English* (April 1970), p. 732.

[13] See also David Orr, "The Job Market in English and Foreign Languages," *PMLA* (November 1970), pp. 1185-1198.

[14] See "The Status of Women: A Summary," The 1970 report of the MLA Commission on Women.

[15] Allan M. Cartter, "Afterefects of Blind Eye to Telescope," *Educational Record* (Fall 1970), p. 336.

[16] *Less Time, More Options: Education Beyond the High School.* A Special Report and Recommendations by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), pp. 13, 14, 17, 20.

[17] See the *Preliminary Catalog of Representative Performance Objectives in English: Grades 9-12* developed by the Tri-University Project: *Behavioral Objectives in English: Grades 9-12* (Champaign, 1970).

[18] Kenneth E. Eble, *The Recognition and Evaluation of Teaching* (Washington, D.C.: AAUP, 1971) and Richard Larson, *The Evaluation of Teaching College English* (New York: MLA, 1971).

Current Issues in ESL

*David P. Harris**

When I was first asked to speak for 20 minutes on the current issues in ESL, the task seemed a relatively easy one. It was only when I finally sat down at my desk to pull my thoughts together that I came to realize my fool-hardiness in committing myself to saying something meaningful on this subject, given the strict time limits. The problem was certainly not one of lack of material, for tantalizing issues are something our profession has in abundance. The problem was one of selection and synthesis.

After I had spent a frustrating week-end of vague groupings and false starts, it gradually seemed to become clear that most of the problems we are wrestling with today are the consequence of a general liberalizing trend that has followed the rejection of an extreme theoretical and methodological position into which much of American foreign-language teaching was forced by certain highly vociferous audiolinguists back in the 40's, 50's, and early '60's. As so often in our history, what began as an attractive theory meriting thoughtful consideration and painstaking verification, was instead precipitously pushed to its extreme and elevated to sacred dogma, with the inevitable branding as heretics of any who persisted in holding to more moderate views. Yet despite the pressures, there *did* continue to be those who refused to swallow the dogma of the audiolingual extremists. Notably one group and a most important group, indeed–held fast against much silliness proclaimed in high places. I am speaking of experienced teachers–the real pros–and I shall return to them shortly.

But certainly everyone was under pressure to conform, and we can all heave a grateful sigh that the pressure–at least that particular kind of pressure–is now off.

Thanks to the recent work of the theoretical linguists, the psychologists, the psycholinguists, and the sociolinguists, the whole atmosphere of ESL methodology has become freer. And at the risk of repeating what everyone in this room already knows, I should like to review briefly how the changes came about.

In the '40's and '50's a group of excessively forceful and vocal audiolinguists were advancing an extreme brand of behavioristic-based methodology, which permeated not only the methods classes but the materials that flowed from the presses. We were assured that we need entertain no doubts about the theoretical basis of ESL teaching: the problem was simply one of preparing programs and textbooks which would adequately reflect that theory. Speech is primary, we were told; and, carried to its logical (or, rather, illogical) extreme, this dictum was often interpreted to mean that *all* written language should be withheld until the student has mastered the essentials of the spoken language. Anyone who suggested, for instance, that certain students had reading as their primary goal were told that it made no real difference–first have them master speech. Unfortunately, so much attention was lavished on the aural-oral stage that we had almost no resources for teaching beyond that stage.

Again, we were assured that language learning must be accomplished through habit formation, and this, in its extreme form, often came to mean teaching patterns through endless repetition, with little *direct* attention to meaning. Thus we were given textbooks which contained such Alice-in-Wonderlandish sequences as:

Mary is **nearly** seven years old.
sometimes
always
never

Direct grammatical explanation was anathema: teach the pattern, and the learners will acquire meaning by a kind of osmosis.

Then came the inevitable reaction against these sorts of things. The psychologists challenged the "audiolingual habit theory," pointing out that mature students can, indeed, profit from direct explanation and from visual presentation, that the endless repetition of patterns is not, and does not necessarily produce communication, and that meaning and motivation are, indeed, most important. Many of these counterviews were then buttressed by the work of the theoretical linguists, who had their own reasons for attacking behavioristic theories of language acquisition.

Today's issues, then, involve both the theory of language learning *and* the practical matter of classroom implementation. One cannot deny, of course, that the old American tendency to replace one orthodoxy with another continues to rear its head. But as one reviews the literature, one sees that, at this point in time at least, we are being offered many views, many options. Issues are being presented to us undogmatically by many leaders in the fields of both foreign-language pedagogy and psycholinguistics. One such presentation is to be found in a paper to which Professor Robinett has already referred: John Carroll's lucid and salutary report on "Current Issues in Psycholinguistics and Second Languate Teaching," given at our last convention and published in the June 1971 issue of our *Quarterly*. Other issues have been alluded to by Professor Robinett in her presentation here today. Of the many issues and disputes that currently fill the language-teaching publications and occupy the speakers at conventions such as this, let me identify just three, giving them in question form. It will readily be seen that underlying each of these major issues are a countless number of sub- and side- issues.

Question No. 1. To what extent is audiolingual habit theory still valid for the ESL teacher, and to what extent, and in what particulars, should it yield to cognitive-code learning theory–that is, the theory that gives a prime role to explanation in the teaching process? You will see that I am assuming that the two kinds of theories are, with adjustments, capable of integration. I think that Carroll's arguments are quite convincing on this point. What, then, of each theory are we to hold onto–at least temporarily? How, on the one hand, may characteristic audiolingual activities, such as pattern-practice and repetition, be utilized most effectively to reinforce cognitive-code learning? And how, conversely, may cognitive-code learning strategies increase the effectiveness of time-tested audiolingual procedures, for example by enabling the teacher to inject meaningful situational content into textbook dialogs? As we see, the current concern with competing learning theories generates a multitude of sub-issues.

Question No. 2 Given our present awareness that there are profoundly different kinds of learners and profoundly different learner goals, how can we most effectively respond to these differences in our methods and materials? Professor Robinett has dealt in some detail with this issue. She has summarized Wallace Lambert's important distinction between, let us say, the learner who is motivated to learn the language for some specific and rather narrow purpose, and the learner whose interests and goals will motivate him to immerse himself not only in the target *language* but in the culture of those who use that language natively. Professor Robinett has graphically shown that our learners stand at innumerable points along a continuum, and she has suggested that we need to have, for major stages along the "learning line," different instructional goals and strategies as well as different materials. Of course, even in the '40's and '50's we talked about levels of English proficiency. But the psychologists' recent work in identifying different language-learning

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**Dr. Harris delivered this paper at one of the 1972 Pre-Convention sessions. He is Director of the American Language Institute, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.*

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motivations and goals, and their evidence of the significant effects which such differences may have on the individual's rate and manner of learning, have added a new dimension. Thus we have come to see that a variety of strategies and materials are necessary not just because some students are "advanced beginners" and others are "high intermediates" (to fall back on terms which nearly all of us use and nobody can satisfactorily define), but because at *any* level of English proficiency some of our students may come to us from literate societies while others may not, some may be living permanently in this country while others may be here for short-term technical training only, some may need to hold tightly to their first language and culture in order, so they believe, to maintain their own personal sense of identity, while others may be eager to embrace the new language and the culture that goes with it, etc. Clearly, this issue rivals our first one in its complexity.

Question No. 3. To what extent, and in what specific ways, does current linguistic theory have practical value to the ESL teacher? It will be observed that I am asking *how*, not *whether*. For it seems unthinkable to me that the vast theoretical probings of the past 15 years have not yielded elements of truth, or that these bits of verity will not in due time give impetus and direction to new methodologies. Indeed, there has already been a smattering of ESL materials reflecting the newer linguistic trends, though some, to be sure, appear to have been rushed to the printer's with unseemly haste. At many points, then, this third question is bound up with Question No. 1, for, as I stated earlier, many theoretical linguists have found their own grounds for joining the psycholinguists in criticism of the particular behavioristic doctrines that lie at the base of audiolingual theory. Again, there are innumerable ramifications. To cite but one (already mentioned by Professor Robinett), if further research seems to confirm the notion of linguistic universals, how can this information be put to the best use in the teaching of foreign, and second, languages? One could continue for several hours simply identifying and illustrating current issues in ESL, but I am already nearing the midpoint in my allotted time. Perhaps, therefore, this would be the appropriate point for me to turn, with your indulgence, from an enumeration of issues to a brief consideration of a related topic which I feel to be of considerable relevance to this audience. I refer to the way that the conscientious teacher has reacted, and should in future react, to the constant bombardment of theories and controversies.

Over the past dozen years I have been blessed with many opportunities to observe ESL teaching in various parts of the country, and in a goodly number of countries overseas. I would be considerably less than honest if I claimed that the teaching I have observed was universally excellent: our profession, like all other branches of teaching, has its share of inept time-servers. But what has impressed me the most, during my visitations, is the extraordinary good sense shown by genuinely concerned and committed teachers everywhere. Many of these "pros" have had little if any formal training in linguistics. But, as Professor Robinett has observed, "a background in linguistics has never been a panacea for all language-teaching problems." What *does* seem almost invariably to characterize our ESL teaching pros is what I would term pedagogical flexibility—an almost intuitive ability to extract what is good from a variety of teaching methods, and to reject what is absurd in the methodologies periodically advanced in high places. If "intuition" seems an unsatisfactory explanation of this ability, let me add that I think this intuition is to a large extent experience-based.

I thus return to a point I made at the very beginning of my remarks: whenever our profession has been threatened by extreme methodological bandwagonism, a significant majority of the teaching pros have managed to maintain their objectivity and have exerted a quiet—but nonetheless very effective—pressure to bring us all back to sanity. Let me illustrate.

When, in the mid-'60's, Wilga Rivers produced her excellent book *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*, the effect in many places was fairly dramatic. "Stop what you're doing," we were bidden from many quarters; "we've been travelling the wrong road." But exactly *who* had been so badly off the right path? I won't indict anybody by answering that question directly, but I *will* venture to identify some who *hadn't* been: our teaching pros. Today it's almost embarrassing to reread Rivers, for the bombshells now look like very small squibs, indeed. I quote almost at random from the book:

> "Whereas reptition is useful in establishing a response, 'overlearning' can fixate stereotyped responses and reduce the student's ability to select among possible alternatives." (Rivers, 67.)

And again: "If students are kept too long at rote memorization of foreign-language material, at drills (even of various types), and a repetition of dialogue material until perfection of recitation has been reached by all, then the task will become monotonous and actual learning will decrease." (Rivers, 69.)

And further: "If . . . the teacher is oblivious to the requirements of . . . individual motivations, they can become extinguished through accumulated inhibition due to the amount of work and effort required or be diverted into other channels as the work becomes more difficult." (Rivers, 85.)

Now, it is my firm conviction that perceptive teachers everywhere had long since reached the same conclusions on the basis of their day-to-day classroom experience. But in an era which relied heavily on science to confirm and buttress dogma, Rivers provided a specific psychological basis for challenging a pseudo-scientific orthodoxy. The opposition thereby gained academic respectability.

My answer, then, to the question of how ESL teachers should respond to the current issues is simply this: they should respond as good teachers in our profession always have: that is, they should keep themselves aware of current theory and research, in linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, pedagogy, and other relevant disciplines, but they should not be stearm-rollered into accepting the latest fads, and they should have the courage to resist what common sense —based on experience—would caution them against accepting. All this is, I know, a difficult assignment. First of all, it is no easy task to keep up on the many scholarly fields that touch our profession. Fortunately, however, there are organizations like TESOL which have a professional responsibility to bring new ideas to the attention of the membership, through conventions and publications. It is difficult, too, to maintain the necessary degree of objectivity and detachment under the dogmatic onslaughts to which we are all exposed. There is a very real danger that, in John Carroll's words, conscientious teachers will "tend to develop, under the pressure of new fads and theories, a kind of professional panic and anxiety about their work." The answer lies, as I have tried to suggest, in testing each new theory against one's own classroom experience. expect the experts, in their honest (though at times overzealous) pursuit of the truth occasionally to bark too loudly up a very wrong tree. And try to keep a straight face when they periodically rediscover the (pedagogical) wheel.

As an example of this latter tendency, I was amused to find, in a recent linguistically-oriented book, a chapter

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devoted to a rather detailed account of the Berlitz method, some elements of which the author obviously (and, no doubt, properly) found commendable. Berlitz—imagine! In my student days one could offer no more devastating criticism of a foreign-language program than to compare it to Berlitz. It was much like labeling a young linguist a "Mario Pei." But we must welcome the specialists' periodic recovery of an older method, for it is important for us all to be reminded that almost any carefully conceived and executed methodology will contain some elements of truth. The danger is that of pushing any theory to the point of absurdity, or, conversely, of being so outraged by certain aspects of a methodology that one precipitously casts it aside *in toto*, baby, bath water, and all. Thus, in the same book that offers us Berlitz, the author indulges in an overkill of the traditional audiolingual method that is so extreme and uncompromising—and hence silly—that it nullifies what good criticism he might have offered.

In conclusion, I, too, would like to take advantage of a captive audience by playing the very popular contemporary game of reviving a bygone foreign-language teaching model. Being somewhat prone to one-upmanship, I have gone back about as far as one can go in the English-speaking world, for my model is the work of the great 10th century English scholar Aelfric. Aelfric seems to have prepared his *Colloquy on the Professions* to aid the young pupils in a cloister school in learning Latin, and it survives in a manuscript which contains a word-for-word interlinear translation in Old English. The *Colloquy* is in the form of a question-and-answer interchange between master and pupils, the latter pretending to be practitioners of various occupations. I shall read only a short excerpt, in a pretty close translation I have made of the Old English gloss.

Teacher: What craft do *you* know?

Fisherman: I'm a fisherman.

Teacher: What do you get from your craft?

Fisherman: Food, clothing, and money.

Teacher: How do you catch the fish?

Fisherman: I board my ship and throw my net into the river, and I throw out hooks or bait and a wicker basket, and whatever they catch I take.

Teacher: What if it's unclean fish?

Fisherman: I throw out the unclean ones and take the clean ones for food.

Teacher: Where do you sell your fish?

Fisherman: In town.

Teacher: Who buys them?

Fisherman: The townsmen. I don't take so many, just what I can sell.

Teacher: What fish do you catch?

Fisherman: Eel and pike, eel-pout, trout, and lamprey, and whatever swims in the water.

Teacher: Why don't you fish in the sea?

Fisherman: Sometimes I do, but not often, because I have to do a lot of rowing in the sea.

Teacher: What do you catch in the sea?

Fisherman: Herring and salmon, porpoise and oysters and crabs, shell-fish, periwinkles, cockles, plaice and flounder and lobsters, and many such.

Teacher: Will you catch some whales?

Fisherman: Not I.

Teacher: Why?

Fisherman: Because it's a dangerous thing to catch whales. It's safer for me to go into the river with my ship than to go with many ships to hunt whales.

In this delightful 10th-century Latin lesson I'm sure we can all identify a number of practices still held in high regard by many foreign-language teachers. Among them are:

(1) Question-and-answer drill in dialog form;

(2) Role-playing to provide a real-life situation;

(3) An effort to reproduce natural, colloquial speech, including short answers;

(4) Vocabulary taught in context, with clusters of lexical items relating to a common topic;

(5) Social and cultural information injected into the language lesson.*

Had we the time, we might consider the current status of each of the various pedagogical devices demonstrated in this lesson. Some, like the memorized dialog, are at the moment under a cloud. Others, like the theme-related lexical groups, are now enjoying increased attention. But my objective in bringing Aelfric to you was a modest one, namely, to suggest that there is little that is really new under the pedagogical sun. Fashions in methodology come and go and come back again, reflecting in part whatever theoretical positions the age finds most satisfying. Our task as teachers, then, is twofold: first, to become acquainted with as many pedagogical options as possible—not merely those which are stylishly "in" at the moment—and, second, to test out these options for ourselves in the classroom, holding fast to whatever our experience shows us to be effective in getting our particular job done. I sincerely hope that your study-group sessions will assist you in this vital undertaking.

**For example, at another point in the dialog the hunter points out that he never works on Sunday and that his employer, the king, sometimes awards him a bonus of a horse or a ring as special incentive.*

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ESL *IS* APPROPRIATE

This article is based on excerpts from a speech made by our president, Mary Galvan, before a meeting of Illinois TESOL at Northeastern Illinois University this past November. As much of the flavor as possible, of President Galvan's speech has been retained.

We're having sort of an exciting year in TESOL, and I think much of what we're doing this year is an attempt to find ourselves, to find out what we're about. Possibly a year ago at this time, we would have said we were pretty clear about what we were about. But several things of a social and a political nature as well as of an educational nature have happened within the last few months that have caused some of us to sit back and say, well, I wonder, how does that affect TESOL and how do we react to the pressure.

I'd like to take off from that point if I may, and start by saying that, as an educational consultant for the last several months, one of my main responsibilities has been working with the Center for Applied Linguistics on the program to settle Vietnamese refugees in this country. At the Center I've worked with a team; we've been writing all kinds of materials that might help a school administrator or a classroom teacher to help set certain programs in place that will be of assistance to the Vietnamese people. It's been an exciting time to work and we proceeded with the Vietnamese program exactly as you would have recommended, I think. We got into the office, several very fine bilingual/bicultural Vietnamese, who gave us a great deal of information about their language and about their culture. And then we've been working with both bilingual principles and ESL principles to try to translate this into schools. We're testing, I think, in working with the Vietnamese, our ability to serve a social issue.

In other words, this is probably one of the most exciting things, the advent of the Vietnamese, that's happened to those of us who are linguists, or anthropologists or teachers in the field of language teaching. It's tested our ability to take what we know as linguists and as anthropologists, and as teachers and translate this information to fit the needs of a special group of people that we never worked with before. I'm happy to announce that our skills seem to work. We think we are on the right track. The sad fact is though, that we're doing things now, for a special group of people, that we should have been doing for many other people for a long, long time.

Now let me say at this point that I believe the advent of the Vietnamese refugees into our company, into our country, may be the best thing that ever happened to public education in the United States. For the reason that it has challenged us in our ability to serve. What's sad is, that we have not looked at the same sort of ability to serve and opportunity to serve with other minority groups in our country many years before this.

For instance, what have the Vietnamese caused us to do in public education around the country. In the first place, they caused us to ask what the community wants. I wish to heaven that we had asked that of the Puerto Ricans, of the Mexicans, of the native Americans about 150 years ago. What would the community like in the terms of education. The second thing is we're beginning to ask ourselves how we can arrange our school schedule and our curriculum to provide the essentials that the Vietnamese need. How I wish we had asked a long time ago, how we could arrange our school curriculum or our staff or our program to meet the needs of Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, and native Americans. We're asking now what kinds of materials will work best with Viet-

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TESOL NEWSLETTER

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namese. I wish many years ago we had asked what kinds of materials would work best with the children we had in school. We are beginning to ask what kind of staff expertise is really best to do the best kind of job for the Vietnamese. We are asking a very critical question which ought to be exceedingly critical to TESOL. We are now asking what the non-specialist in language can do. In other words we are now faced with a situation with the Vietnamese that we have far too few trained ESL specialists to serve the demand, and we are having to turn to elementary teachers and secondary teachers who have no specialized training and test our ability to show them in very quick manner what they can do to assist the Vietnamese. The situation is the same, at least in Texas, with the bilingual programs down there. One of the real cop-outs, as far as I can tell on bilingual education in the state of Texas is the old howl, Oh we would love to do a bilingual program but we just don't have the specialists to do it. Right? When suddenly the same schools who have been unwilling to find out what to do with the non-specialists or to train the non-specialists, suddenly are willing to say, would you come in and show us in a matter of three or four weeks what we could do with the regular classroom teacher to assist in working with the Vietnamese. It is a question we should have challenged ourselves with a long time ago. I think what we stand for in TESOL is perhaps the most humane in all of public education. I think our strategies, our methodologies, our concern for where children are and where they want to go, and getting them where they want to go, is perhaps the most humane aspect of public education. I'd like to see us reach out to people who never dreamed of working with an organization like TESOL before.

Now let me give you a couple of examples. I've been consulting with the Opaloosah County schools in Florida in the area around Egland Air Force base, a school district that has over 200 Vietnamese children that have just joined their school district, and we are working with a support bilingual program for Vietnamese children there. The children, the target group, are scattered in several dozen schools around the county, some in schools that have as few as three children, some in schools that have as many as 30 or 40. So what we had to do is reach out and talk with several dozen teachers who never dreamed they would find themselves in a position of teaching English as a second language. One of the groups that came in and volunteered to help, were a bunch of speech therapists. They said, Look, we're closer to language development than anybody that's ever taught in this school, we understand that speech therapy is not the same thing as ESL, but we think if you could show us what the differences are, and teach us some new strategies, and show us what literature to read, we might be able to serve this particular situation very well. And, I worked with them a little bit, and lo and behold, they are doing a remarkable job. They don't see their role as a pull-out ESL specialist at all, they simply volunteered as teachers to give one hour a day in whatever building they were working with. They talk with each of the Vietnamese children in the school once a day. They give them a little bit of directive information or a little bit of directive instruction, and then they coordinate the rest of the language learning with the elementary teacher who is actually in the classroom with the child. And it is a program that is working without a great deal of training, surprisingly enough. Another beautiful story about the non-specialist is the most exciting group in Opaloosa County. They are a bunch of high school speech students, five of them, who said they would like to do some peer tutoring with the Vietnamese students in the high school. They would be willing to give an hour a day working with their peers there in the high school. They sat in on our faculty meetings, and they learned every bit as rapidly as the teachers did. They are an enthusiastic and wonderful bunch of people. These are people who *can* serve, and we ought to be, I think, as TESOL specialists, assisting in the process of serving.

Another question that the Vietnamese situation in this country is raising is, is mass teacher education possible? Can we ever train enough teachers in ESL techniques so that they can sufficiently serve the needs that we know exist in the schools. We know how that ought to be done, don't we? I think that every teacher education program in the country ought to include one or more courses designed to teach students who are linguistically and culturally different. I think it ought to be fundamental in teacher education—I don't think it can be ignored with any teacher training program in the country.

The last question that the Vietnamese have caused us to ask, is this, what can we get people to volunteer to do. What can we get them to commit themselves to do. What can we get the administrator to commit his school to do, in the interest of children who come from linguistically and culturally different groups. What can we get parents to do, what can we get peer groups to do, what can we get other colleagues to do. All of those things ought to be part of our consideration.

The second point of concern that I have for TESOL this year, and it is a growing concern, and I think something desperate needs to be done, is to face fairly and squarely, that in most instances, ESL, as a skill or a program, does not exist by itself. In fact, most of us wonder if it should exist by itself. *Also, we need to face the fact that there is no Federal program and practically no state programs which fund ESL ACTIVITIES in the school.* In other words, if we started looking for money to finance ESL activities in the school, in either state or federal legislation, we come up with practically zero funds and yet, ESL is a part of practically every important piece of federal legislation that exists. What I am suggesting is that we need to look very carefully at the programs that exist in Federal and State legislation and find out what our role *IS* in these programs and let the administrators of those programs know that we exist and that we are a part of them.

For instance, I've been working this year as a consultant for the U.S. Office of Education, in a program that is called Bilingual Vocational Education. It is part of the Vocational Education Act. Now whoever thought of looking at vocational education for an ESL program? Not a great deal of money, nor as much as there ought to be, but still there is a considerable sum. And all of it based on the predication that there are numbers of citizens of the United States who do not take vocational training because they have inadequate command of English. The answer that was suggested by the legislation was bilingual vocational education.

One characteristic of all of the twenty projects that I have worked with is their naive approach to ESL. The depth within vocational education was not in bilingual education nor in the language component, at all, and yet that is where a lot of money and a great need exists, bilingual education. Most of the projects were working under the assumption that, in order to fulfill the bilingual component, all you had to do was to go speeding down to Mexico, pick up a whole bunch of vocational materials from Mexico, then come running back to the U.S. and put them in place. Remarkable! Except that, when I was at Mex TESOL I sat in on a

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meeting and they were saying the real need of ESL in Mexico was not where it was ten years ago, in the upper middle class. The real need in Mexico was for English instruction in the vocational schools. And I thought, hmmm! And I asked, why is it that vocational education is offered in English. And they said, because there are no technical materials written in Spanish and we can't find craftsmen who speak Spanish. Our craftsmen speak in English, teach in English and the materials are in English. And the vocational schools all across Mexico are screaming for someone to come in and teach ESL so that they can offer the vocational program. Now isn't that a switch!

Now then, another mandate of this particular piece of legislation is that the ESL instruction be tied to the vocational instruction. Every vocational teacher who is going to come into the school to teach vocational education, is also going to have to be a language teacher. This is mandated by the legislation. There isn't time to first write a curriculum, then to go out to train your staff, then open the school. The training has to start the first day the project is funded and it closes twelve months later. Which means that somewhere we have got the opportunity now, the obligation, to sit down with a bunch of craftsmen, vocational teachers, and actually show them how to put together vocational training and language instruction, at one and the same time. What a challenge!

The second federal program I'd like to mention is Title I, and Migrant Education. That is the largest sum of money in the first place. Which means it serves more schools than any other piece of federal legislation. Now, I understand that in Chicago you have a large input of ESL specialists into Title I. In Texas they ain't never heard of TESOL. The big program in Title I all across this nation is Reading and there is no way we are going to bring across the successful teaching of reading for those children, unless we teach language development, particularly, ESL, first. It's absolutely imperitivative, that we find a role into Title I.

The third piece of legislation involves Title IV and the Lau Technical Assistance Centers that are springing up all over the country. This whole desegregation, this whole technical assistance business depends on their understanding of how to serve the linguistically and the culturally diverse. That's what its all about! But I am afraid that until they find out that we exist, the problems for Title IV and the Lau Centers are going to be largely a matter of administration, of moving people about rather than getting down to the successful education of them.

The fourth title is all those titles of legislation under Adult Education. The second largest interest group in TESOL is the adult education group. We do participate in the adult education accosiation conferences. We are making an input but in this whole field of basic literacy as well as vocational training for adults, as well as just simply improving skills that are already there, we do not have as significant a part as we should.

The fifth program of course is Bilingual Education. We find across the country in bilingual education programs the ESL component done from very good to gosh awful. For instance, I know, that it is very strong here in Chicago, but in Texas the political decision was based upon the notion that you either had an ESL program or a bilingual one and so they decided to keep ESL out of the entire picture. Would you believe that the Texas guidelines for teacher education for bilingual education do not include any component for language development, either first or second language, for the entire state of Texas. It's true!

The sixth program that I think we ought to look at, is in General Education—the language development programs. I think that one of the hardest jobs I had with the Texas Educational Agency as Program Director of English Language Arts programs was to talk to teachers about the language development of the linguistically and culturally different students. As far as general education is concerned, we are still an unknown quantity. Why? My assumption is this, teacher training is still producing teachers that are I suppose trained to teach the upper and upper middle class Anglo student. I've got a sneaking suspicion that the sweet young things that come out of those programs come out of school praying to heaven they will never have to teach a child ESL. Really and truly, ESL is the strangest thing in education. It's the thing for the poor kids you don't want to teach. We in ESL know better. We know what the challenge is, we know what the joy is, we know what the pleasure of being in this field is. But most teachers don't know. Somewhere, what we know, the skills we know, the understandings we have, are going to have to permeate general education.

The next program, of course, is Reading. If you could get money for one thing, or if you could mount a campaign for one specific program in the school, I'll guarantee you the program would be reading. The best reading experts in the country now say that the basis of instruction in reading lies in reading readiness and that with the exception of two skills, that is visual memory and visual discrimination, all of readiness is nothing in the world but language development. We've got a role to play in reading.

The last program I'd like to mention, we have not got within screaming distance of, and we should. And that is the whole program of Special Education. Where we have thousands of children evaluated, placed, diagnosed, prescribed, and taught with instruments and with specialists that don't know a thing in the world about language and certainly not second language teaching. It's as scary as it can be. If we can be known in Special Education, as I think we must be, there is a chance that we could influence such things as the instrumentation by which children are tested, and certainly the materials with which they're trained and we could also get into special education teacher training.

All of these programs are waiting for us, and as far as I know only Bilingual Education has really opened its arms to welcome TESOL. All the rest of the programs are programs that we must, I think, find a way to get into, as a responsible professional organization Now I think that what we're going to have to do in order to accomplish this, is to begin looking at how we can pool talent, and resources and find out what we can do together that we could never do singly. There is no way we are going to get a special education teacher to say, you as a TESOL specialist should come help me because I don't know what to do myself. It's not going to work that way. Also, as humanitarians, I think we'll have to admit, that there is much of the technique practiced in special education that we could use. They do know how to deal with individual students. They do have techniques for working with various kinds of situations that we could only dream about. We need them and they need us.

All of this leads to the statement that we have a political reality that we have to face in TESOL. If we are to survive and if we are to fluorish, then we must find our way into the programs which are mandated by law because they are on the books and they get the support of schools and institutions.

The emphasis of practically all of the ESL programs I am aware of, is the emphasis on the whole child and the educational experience of the

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ESL APPROPRIATE

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whole child. We're a little past, in TESOL, the day when we would select books and start on page one and march right through with all the pattern drills that we could find, leaving the child really incapable of doing a great deal. We are now in the business of trying to determine, when we get hold of a student, what the needs of that student are and then tayloring the ESL program to fit those needs, depending upon what he wants for himself, what his family wants, what his community wants. We're in the business as TESOL specialists, now, of marshalling all the needed resources it takes to make a program go. What we're beginning to say among ourselves, and I hope we can say of general education in the next few months, is that considering the fact, that possibly 20 percent of all the students of the United States have a need for ESL, we may find ourselves at the very core of every school program in the U.S. Let's hope we deserve the job.

III. Bilingual/Bicultural Education and SESD

The Teacher, His Roles, and the Cuban Student

JAY WISSOT
Union City/Hackensack, N. J., Public Schools

Any person upon entering a classroom comprised of Cuban students is faced with a multitude of tasks and roles far exceeding those found in an average classroom situation. It is not that the teacher's role is so different, but that all the required roles of a standard academic class are magnified many times in an English as a second language class.

The teacher of Cuban students must be a friend, confidant, comforting influence, guidance counselor, and substitute mother-father figure. More so, he must fulfill these roles in a manner which he never would have imagined. Walking into his classroom, the teacher must exhibit an open-arms feeling. He is dealing with frightened children, children experienced in the horror of death, starvation, and family separation. He is faced with an immediate language and cultural block that cannot be overcome through any means other than warmth. If he proceeds along strict disciplinarian lines and places paramount importance on the amount of material covered, he will only succeed in further widening the gap that exists between him and his class. In contrast, the teacher's concern for them as people can achieve immeasurable benefits.

As confidant, the teacher broadens the "amigo" status he tried to engender in his initial classroom contact. Many experienced teachers will theorize that a teacher loses some of his objectivity when he steps down from his lectern and becomes personally involved with his students. If in a generalized sense I do not fully subscribe to this theory I am totally opposed to it when it is applied to the specifics of Cuban students. You cannot remain neutral when a young boy shows you a picture of his mother and father still in Cuba and asks, "How do you like?" You cannot remain neutral when a girl comes to class crying because it is her mother's birthday and she wants to be with her. You cannot remain neutral and stand on dogmatic precedence when they ask, "Where do you live?" or "Are you married?" "Do you have any children?" These questions come up in all classes but to these students it means you care enough to share your personal life and to freely offer a part of your personality to them. It is one of the easiest ways to break down pre-existing barriers.

The application of comforting influences is especially vital to the Cuban youngster entering an American public school system for the first time. Many of the Cuban students I have taught have lived in this country for a matter of days or weeks. They, obviously, have a great deal to be apprehensive of even without the added burden of learning a new tongue. Of those students who have been here long enough to experience our public education facilities, too many find themselves being scheduled or "dumped" into advanced English classes which penalize them for their linguistic inadequacies. If these factors are taken into consideration, it should be clear that the Cuban youngster needs more reassurance, and achievement reward than what is usually given in an academic English class. Empathy towards the student and an astute awareness of situation are among the surest ways to provide comforting influences. Often, I have had students who constantly giggled and fidgeted when called upon. My first impulse was to tell them that the least they could do was try. After a while, I began to realize that the giggling was a product of extreme tension and nervousness, not recalcitrance or deliberate misbehavior. Tangentially related to this quality of empathic attitude is an understanding that all people do not hear alike. What may appear to you as low linguistic ability, or language interference, may well be a physical, not a mental deviation.

In retrospect, comforting influences in the form of a teacher's smile, a pat on the back, or a genuine beam of approval really stem from the ability of the teacher to sense the sheer frustration involved in learning a new language. One must provide these students with every opportunity to achieve self-success. Reward is the chief motivating factor in a language class. Moreover, the teacher must show that he realizes linguistic handicaps are not a reflection upon intelligence or general academic desire. One of the easiest methods I know of to drive home this point is to allow the students to teach and correct you in their native language. In my case, the students were certainly more fluent in Spanish than I and by openly requesting their help, I attempted to prove that language learning is not a one-way street. Through sincere interest in their language, I hoped to engender a reciprocal interest in the *target* language being taught.

Of greater consequence is my personal belief that a teacher in any situation must begin from the class's educational base and interest level, NOT from a theorized base or interest level. All too often I have heard teachers say that there will be no Spanish spoken in their classrooms. It is ridiculous to presume that you can take a Cuban or Spanish youngster of a week's residence in this country and say "Sit in this class for forty-five minutes and don't say a word of Spanish." I have heard of teachers who removed their students from class for murmuring questions in Spanish. You alienate these students by immediately forcing them to respond in English too soon. It is better to approach the transition from Spanish to English gradually rather than dramatically. Making them feel at home and at ease is more important in the beginning stages than forcing them to fit the linguistic system. I would not advocate total communication in Spanish but I would supplement my English commands with Spanish commands in cases where you can see that no response is forthcoming. As the student becomes familiar with and accustomed to the English pattern and cadence, the native language can be dropped. By choosing the opposite method of total devotion to the "target" language you risk student frustration and total alienation from what you attempt to do in the future. Let me state now that this is only a guideline to be utilized according to the individual abilities of the student. But I personally feel it is almost mandatory when working with the newly arrived beginner.

Although the role of guidance is commonly assigned to a specialized department apart from the domain of the classroom teacher, the situation is reversed in the case of the foreign-born student. It is from the English teacher, not from the guidance department, that much of the necessary school information and vocational assistance emanates. This is not a criticism of the guidance department efforts, but rather a realization of their limitations in dealing with the foreign-born. Because of the obvious language barrier, the physical separa-

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THE TEACHER, HIS ROLES . . .

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tion of the guidance department from the rest of the school and the time allotment necessarily given to each pupil in the school, it is quite apparent that the language class must share a great deal of the school communication responsibility. To cite an example: Last year a youngster failed to leave the building during a fire drill simply because he was unaware of school procedures. In areas of scheduling, student forms, and extra-curricular activities, the role of the English teacher in a Cuban classroom is certainly far more complex than one can imagine.

A teacher's first impressions upon walking into a Cuban classroom focus upon the ethnic solidification and family atmosphere which control the room. More than anything else, the Cubans are a closely knit, family-oriented people. The recent political developments in Cuba have done nothing but strengthen the strong ties which already existed among Cuban people. Very often, Cuban youngsters must turn to aunts, uncles, cousins, and other Cubans for the comfort and guidance which can no longer be given by estranged parents now living in Cuba. The separation goes beyond the parent-child relationship and involves brothers and sisters who are divorced from each other living in relatives' homes within the same community. The school thus becomes an ethnic meeting place and the role of the teacher is dramatically interwoven into this cultural development. Emergence into this ethnic bloc becomes of paramount importance to the teacher "outsider". Acceptance into the school-family means success; rejection from the family spells failure and group hostility. The issue in question is not "What do we accomplish?" but "How do we accomplish it?" It is at this point that the role of substitute mother-figure and father-figure emerges into central focus. Replacement of the mother- or father-figure is not the teacher's objective. It is, rather, to foster those qualities most closely related to each role. In the case of the father-figure, the teacher can provide some of the absent authority caused by father-son separation. This is not a disciplinarian authority but rather the authority of a calming figure whose strength and composure erase much of the chaos still existent in the boy's life. Similarly, the mother-figure is best displayed when the teacher shows genuine satisfaction and praises the student who has succeeded or progressed. This is the kind of warmth and radiance that the child reacts to immediately and knows spontaneously.

All this may seem over-emphatic and melodramatic, but it is offered in complete sincerity. If you cannot enter into the family circle, you cannot teach the "family" before you. Once you are accepted, your major objective is satisfied. The group responds to you in a monolithic fashion. Because of your acceptance, discipline is maintained from within the family, not imposed by you from without. Frequently it is the older student who will provide the cues and lead back into the fold any recalcitrant misbehaving ones. Your job is that much simplified and you start to sense a rhythmical movement as the class flows to the tempo and speed you originate. Gradually the barriers dissipate and a newly formed allegiance between teacher and class develops. The common denominator of love and concern for fellow human beings is always a stronger force than the linguistic and cultural forces which wither apart under direct confrontation without these extra ingredients.

VOL II NO 4

TESL Classes on the Navaho Reservation

GINA P. HARVEY

Fort Lewis College and *Colorado State University*

One hundred eighty-five teachers and administrators recently completed a seven-week training program in the Teaching of English as a Second Language. The course, which was funded under a Title I (89-10) grant of ESEA, was offered for four hours a day, one day each week in each of the five agencies of the Navaho Reservation. Dr. Gina P. Harvey of Farmington, New Mexico, recipient of the grant, directed the program with the cooperation of Dr. William Benham, Area Director of Education for the Bureau of Indian Affairs, and other B.I.A. officials.

Participants in the course received three quarter hours of graduate credit from Colorado State University.

The content of the course was directed toward the problems of teaching English to Navaho children, many of whom speak little or no English prior to entering school. Instruction included the theories and assumptions of ESL, the phonology, morphology, and syntax of English, and the cultural and linguistic interference between Navaho and English. Participants practiced preparing ESL lesson plans, teaching pronunciation, and the sequencing of materials for various levels. The teaching of reading and writing and the methods of testing were also discussed. A number of participants prepared projects for the correlation of ESL with other subject areas in the school curriculum.

Special consultants who spoke to the various classes included Dr. Elinor Clemons of Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff; Drs. Frank Tikalsky and John Ives of Fort Lewis College, Durango, Colorado; Dr. M. F. Heiser of Colorado State University, Fort Collins; and Dr. Lois McIntosh of the University of California, Los Angeles.

Another seven-week program is scheduled for September at other locations in the five agencies of the Reservation with Dr. Harvey as director and instructor. An enrollment of about two hundred is anticipated.

Dr. Harvey has been engaged in conducting teacher-training courses in ESL for the past year. Previous classes have included the problems of Ute and Spanish-speaking children in addition to those of the Navahos.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION – A SECOND LOOK*

Paul W. Bell

As Harold B. Allen points out in the NCTE publication, *TENES, Survey of the Teaching of English to Non-English Speakers in the United States,* the teaching of English to a speaker of another language must have first occurred in the Americas when a white invader from England first presented an English language model for an American Indian to imitate. If this is true, it should be noted that the first attempt at foreign language teaching in the Americas must have taken place years before when a Spaniard set an earlier linguistic model for the native American Indian. Obviously then, the earliest efforts in bilingual education in this hemisphere involved Spanish and Indian languages. Some years later, English entered the picture.

Today, centuries later, bilingualism in the United States is still too often thought of as something for Spanish-speakers, Indians, or some other "foreign" groups. The typical North American educator still cannot conceive of bilingualism as a desireable goal, and it is especially not thought of as a goal for English-speakers, "Anglos", middle-class Americans, or any other label applied to kids like mine.

Fortunately, during the past decade a change has begun to take place. The purpose of this paper is to focus on that change – to examine what has happened in bilingual education in the United States during the past ten years. It is not intended as a scholarly examination of the historical development since the founding of our nation, nor is it intended to be a comprehensive examination of existing programs nor of current research. The focus of the paper is on a decade, not five centuries, for these reasons:

1. Before 1961 for all practical purposes, bilingual education was not the subject of public concern. Attempts to provide bilingual schooling were almost exclusively limited to private schools or other independently supported programs sponsored by ethnic groups which wanted to maintain their linguistic traditions.
2. In 1961, the Dade County Public Schools made a system-wide committment to bilingual education. This was, to my knowledge, the first major school system in the United States in recent times provide both second language and native language instruction for non-English speaking students.
3. It was my good fortune to be associated with this school system and its programs during the last decade.

I shall attempt to present today, as the title of this presentation implies, a re-examination of bilingual education from the point of view of one system's involvement in the development of bilingual education programs for a decade.

The Dade County Public Schools is a large urban system, the nation's sixth largest, with over 250,000 students. Of these students, more than 50,000 are Spanish-speaking. Before 1961, Dade County and most other school systems in the United States provided only minimal attention to the needs of the students in the schools who were non-native speakers of English. Students, generally, were distributed among regular classes, assigned "buddies" who were to help the newcomers adjust to a new school environment. Occasionally the non-English speakers received "orientation", a program with little structure and few defined purposes.

In 1961, as the influx of Cuban refugees to Miami increased to more than 1500 students a month, a series of curricula adjustments were made to more adequately meet the instructional needs of the Spanish-speaking students. English as a second language was introduced as a regular part of the curriculum. Teachers were trained to teach English as a second language. Former Cuban teachers who were bilingual, but not qualified for a teaching certificate in Florida because they were not United States citizens, were employed as para-professionals to assist the certified North American teachers. And it was the para-professional Cuban Aide who became the building block which was to be the foundation for bilingual education in Miami, and to some extent in the United States. The Cuban Aide, in 1961, was responsible for providing the Spanish-speaking student with an educational program in Spanish. Because of the aides' skill and dedication, thousands of Spanish-speaking students were educated in their native language.

At the beginning, Spanish-S, the program in Spanish for Spanish speakers, was a concept, not a real curriculum. The aides were asked to teach Spanish language arts, with limited resources and little direction. Ten years ago when Dade County first made a committment to maintain the child's first language as he was learning a second, the instructional strategies were fuzzy but the objectives were clear: Spanish-speaking children in the Dade County schools were to remain or become literate in their native language. They were to be given the opportunity to become educated bilinguals, literate in two languages.

Since its introduction as a regular part of the school system's curriculum, the Spanish-S Program has grown and taken on structure. Tens of thousands of students have been enrolled in classes which not only met their intellectual needs, but also helped them to understand and identify with the culture from which they came. The self-image of the Cuban child remains high, partly as the result of curriculum design.

Today, as the result of many people's efforts but stemming originally from the talents of a former Cuban Aide, Mrs. Iluminada Valle, who almost single-handedly wrote the original curriculum, a rather extensive and well-defined curriculum exists. Under the direction of Mrs. Herminia Cantero, materials, curriculum guides, and instructional objectives have been compiled. Articulated programs have developed. By design, the Spanish-S program has been structured to re-inforce and be re-inforced by learning which takes place in the English language arts program.

After ten years of experience with programs designed to teach large numbers of non-English speaking students, it is our conviction that a program for non-native speakers of English cannot be considered adequate if, when feasible, it does not provide for instruction in the student's native language. However, experience has also demonstrated that in Miami and in the rest of the United States a program of Spanish vernacular instruction is seriously handicapped by a shortage of instructionally sound materials which reflect contemporary concepts of curriculum. Further, language arts teachers trained to teach in a foreign language are not in great supply. Through a special program at the University of Miami – 350 former Cuban aides have become fully certified teachers. To be an effective teacher of Spanish as a native language, the teacher must first be a professionally competent teacher. Second, she must speak Spanish with the ability of a native speaker. And third, she must be educated in Spanish. Unfortunately in most sections of the United States, such teachers are in scarce supply. Many teachers who are native speakers of Spanish are themselves victims of an educational system which failed to develop their bilingualism, and many who are trained are foreign

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*A paper presented at the TESOL Convention, New Orleans, March 1971. Paul W. Bell is Executive Director, Division of Instruction, Dade County Public Schools, in Miami, Florida.

Bilingual Education

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language teachers, not teachers of language arts. Fortunately in the past few years, a few universities and colleges are beginning to develop programs which may some day in the future produce qualified bilingual teachers capable of teaching in an articulated language arts program involving a language other than English.

Rosa G. Inclan, Coordinator of Bilingual Education for Dade County, and Herminia Cantero, Specialist in Spanish as a Native Language, continue to identify Spanish-S as the major strategy to be employed in helping our 50,000 Spanish speakers develop their bilingual potential. It is unlikely that sufficient human and material resources will exist in the next ten years to permit a major shift to a second type of bilingual program which is being offered in Dade County to a much more limited degree – the bilingual school program.

In 1961, primarily as a result of the efforts of Pauline M. Rojas, Dade County school officials became aware of the need to intensify efforts to develop bilingualism, not only among the Spanish-speaking community, but also among the native English speakers. But it was not until 1963 that the Coral Way Elementary School introduced a program in its primary grades. The faculty made up of native speakers of English and bilingual native Spanish speakers, under the direction of the principal, Joseph L. Logan, began to offer all pupils – both English and Spanish speaking – instruction for approximately half the school day in English and half in Spanish.

The pupils who started in this program in 1963 have had the opportunity to continue with an uninterrupted bilingual education through junior high school and should be able to receive a bilingual program until they graduate from high school. Since Coral Way became what has been recognized as the first contemporary public bilingual school in the United States, Leroy D. Fienberg Elementary, Ida M. Fisher Junior High, and Shenandoah Junior High have introduced bilingual school programs. It is anticipated that additional bilingual programs will be implemented within the next few years. Limited programs are being offered in one other school and another is projected for September, 1971.

The educators at Coral Way believe that skills and concepts acquired in the vernacular will be transferred virtually automatically in the acquisition of another language. With this view as a guide the following goals were established:

- The participating pupil will have achieved as much in the ways of skills, abilities, and understandings as he would have had he attended a monolingual school.
- He will be able to function in either culture easily and comfortably.
- The child will be appreciative of different people and cultures and at the same time will have pride in his own heritage.
- He will be approximately as proficient in listening, speaking, reading and writing his second language as he is in his first language.

Inasmuch as in the learning of a first language there is a natural sequence-listening, speaking, reading and writing, it is the philosophy of the school that in the teaching of a second language a greater degree of success can be achieved by following the same natural sequence. This judgment dictates, then, the use of the audio–lingual approach in teaching a second language.

Between 1963 and 1969, a limited number of bilingual school programs were initiated in other parts of the United States. Most were designed for Spanish-speakers or for Indians. With the passage of Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, there has been a rapid expansion of programs which may be called bilingual. Most of the programs created with this funding are still in the process of defining and developing curriculum and organization structure. Therefore, very little evaluation of current bilingual programs in the United States has taken place.

The schools in Dade County have been the subject of a long-range evaluation program. A study on bilingual education was conducted by Mabel Wilson Richardson as part of the requirement for the doctoral program at the University of Miami. After studying pupil performance over a three-year period, Dr. Richardson stated, "a valid conclusion seems to be that a bilingual program of study was as effective as the regular curriculum in achieving progress in paragraph meaning, word meaning, spelling, arithmetic resoning, and arithmetic computation for English and Spanish-speaking pupils," as shown by results in the Stanford Achievement Test in Coral Way and a nearby elementary school.

A study by Beulah Cypress in a research training program for the University of Miami supports Richardson's study. Examining data collected during the 1968-69 school year, Miss Cypress concluded that "It appears that Cuban children at Coral Way Elementary School have obtained equal reading proficiency in Spanish and English. The previous study (Richardson's) showed that gains were being made, but it was not until pupils reached the sixth grade that equal

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language proficiency was reached. A general conclusion that by sixth grade Cuban children are equally proficient in reading in two languages is tenable." During the current year, a comprehensive evaluation of Dade County's bilingual program is being conducted. Unfortunately the results are not yet available. However, a report will be published by June, 1971.

After eight years' experience offering bilingual school programs, those responsible for bilingual education in our school system have concluded that two major areas are critical to the success of a program – professionally competent staff and instructionally sound curricula. Fortunately in Miami, staff selection of Spanish speakers for a limited number of bilingual schools presents few problems. There are many excellent teachers who are native speakers of Spanish, educated in Spanish, and trained in contemporary American educational theory. In Miami, it is far more difficult, in fact almost impossible, to employ native North American teachers who are bilingual. In other sections of the United States today there appears to be a scarcity of teachers qualified to teach in bilingual schools.

The need for improved curriculum design and for the development of instructional materials in Spanish is, as the result of projects being funded under Title VII, finally being met. In California there is a materials acquisition project designed to purchase, analyze, and disseminate information about commercially available materials which would support bilingual education. In Texas a project has been funded to form a consortium which will bring together materials produced in local projects. In Florida a Spanish Curricula Development Center has been established to create Spanish curricula to support Spanish-English bilingual education programs in the primary grades. The three projects, geographically distributed across the country, represent a long-awaited national effort to develop sound curricula in support of bilingual education. From these projects should emerge the foundation upon which sound bilingual programs can be built.

The project which is located in Florida, under the direction of Ralph F. Robinett, is expected to accomplish its goals during the four year period 1970-74. The Center will produce, field test, and revise multi-media, multi-disciplinary Spanish curricula kits. It is projected that 16 kits will be produced for each of the first three grades of the elementary school. Each of the kits is to be suitable for developing in Spanish six curricula stands: (1) Spanish language arts-vernacular, (2) Social Science, (3) Fine Arts, (4) Science, (5) Mathematics, and (6) Spanish as a second language.

The program is so designed that a school will be able to use any single strand or any combination of strands. For example, a school in Chicago with limited resources or need for a full bilingual program might choose to use the Spanish language arts Strand with its native Spanish speakers in Grades One, Two, and Three, and use the Spanish as a second language Strand with its native English speakers. As the result of this combination the Spanish-speaking pupil will be provided structured and unstructured experiences in Spanish to develop his oral competencies and his reading skills. The English dominant student will be provided oral language experiences in Spanish and then be phased into Spanish reading after decoding skills are mastered in English.

A school in California near the Mexican border with qualified staff could use all the strands to develop the half of the bilingual school curricula which would be offered in Spanish. Students involved in such a program would be offered the two strands previously discussed and, in addition, they would have an inquiry-oriented social science program in Spanish which would stress socio-economic, cultural make-up of the groups for which it is intended. The Spanish science program will be process oriented, with heavy emphasis placed on observing, using time/space relationships, classifying, using numbers, measuring, communicating, predicting, and inferring. The Spanish math program will be typical of contemporary mathematics programs, but will be integrated with the science program. Fine Arts will reflect the cultural heritage of the Spanish speaking children.

The twenty nine members of the Center's staff reflect its national commitment. Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and "Anglos" were selected to reflect the national target populations. A national advisory committee for the project has been established which reflects the same ethnic and regional considerations. To further ensure that the national goals will be reached, four regional centers are being set up under the direction of Josue Gonzalez with funds provided by the federal government and the Hearst Foundation, with the cooperation of the National Urban Coalition. These centers will make the adaptations of the basic curricula package which will be needed to provide for local needs. During the next three years, 4500 to 9000 children in Title VII and other bilingual programs throughout the United States will be involved in the field testing of the curricula.

In summary, during the past ten years there seem to have been four events which can be identified as milestones in bilingual education, in which Dade County has participated. They are: (1) in 1961, a commitment was made to provide non-English speaking students two kinds of language programs which they needed – English as a second language, and Spanish as a native language, (2) in 1963, a public bilingual elementary school provided both English and Spanish-speaking pupils with the opportunity to begin a twelve-year educational program which would produce bilingual and bicultural students, (3) in 1967 the Bilingual Education Act was passed which has supported the establishment of more than 125 bilingual projects, (4) in 1970, serious efforts were begun to build a sound curricula to support bilingual education, which will provide the materials necessary to guarantee a good instructional program in Spanish.

Unfortunately, there are few university programs currently supporting the training of teachers so that they will be prepared to teach in bilingual programs. Hopefully, perhaps with federal support, training programs will be developed and packaged for wide dissemination which will make it possible for faculties to become involved in sorely-needed staff development program.

If teacher training receives the attention it deserves, the ingredients necessary for successful bilingual programs may be available. The conceptualization of programs is taking place. The materials are being developed. The funds are becoming available. If administrators recognize the need, bilingual education may have an impact on the millions of children who are not now adequately being served by our schools. The next years should be most interesting.

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NEWS WANTED

We would like news about what *you*, the TESL or bilingual teacher, supervisor, or teacher trainer are doing. Items concerning such activities as research projects, new programs, or materials development are welcome. Please send to the Editor, *TESOL Newsletter*.

SOCIAL DIALECTS AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING: A CASE OF TERRITORIAL OVERLAP*

Roger W. Shuy

In his presidential report to the membership of TESOL for 1970, David P. Harris observes: "No picture of the history of ESOL in the sixties would be complete without some consideration of the interaction of ESOL and ESD–English as a second dialect–during the decade now past. For the same decade that saw the emphasis in ESOL shift from the international to the domestic scene also witnessed a growing concern. . .for those many thousands of American children and adults whose academic success and social mobility are severely restricted by the kind of English they use and by their difficulties in dealing with the written word."[1] Harris goes on to note that a great deal remains to be learned about the transferability of ESOL teaching strategies to the instruction of non-standard English speakers and vice-versa.

In the same issue of the TESOL *Newsletter* in which Harris's presidential report appears, there is a position paper by the Committee on Socio-Political concerns of Minority Groups in TESOL in which the committee laments both the lack of impact which TESOL has had on the American educational system and the unfortunate seperation of language acquisition from the social, economic and political lives of the individuals who are doing the learning.[2]

In this one lone issue of the *Newsletter*, there are two prominent signs of impending overhaul and expansion in this young organization. It is in the context of these foreshadowings of change that I would like to address the issues of the problems of territorial overlap brought about by this recent interest in social dialects in this country and the need for developing wings of social responsibility that will carry our academic institutions, whether they be school systems, universities or professional organizations, out of the shells of their comfortable abstraction.

The influence of TESOL expanded greatly in the forties and fifties. While systematic, linguistically-based methodologies were being developed during these decades, specialists in ESOL found their home primarily in the Linguistic Society of America, an organization which then welcomed such aspects of applied linguistics. During sixties, however, while LSA concerns moved more and more toward linguistic theory and away from applied linguistics, ESOL specialists continued to grow in numbers, publications and federal support to the extent that ultimately a separate organization seemed to be the right and natural outgrowth. The result of this split has proved difficult for both organizations. For theoretical linguists, the separation of applied or related fields has removed at least one perspective from their world-view. However necessary and important linguistic theory is, it is unlikely to thrive on its own for very long. Already the walls are beginning to show signs of cracking, for the field has now replaced itself with more practitioners than the job market will require for some time and some recent Ph.D.'s who find themselves teaching freshman composition are wondering what their new degrees were all about anyway. I make this observation not that this changing job-market will suddenly or even gradually produce a rapprochement between theoretical and applied linguistics. I doubt that this will happen. Rather, the current situation seems to bode well for the development of applied linguistics and it is toward this end that the territorial overlap battle involving social dialects and second language learning seems symptomatic and predictive.

Social Dialects and ESL:

As early as 1961, attempts were made to implement ESL-like programs in the teaching of standard English to speakers of a non-standard variety. The early suggestions of San-su Lin, William A. Stewart, William R. Slager, William Carroll and Irwin Feigenbaum all pursue this line in one way or another with varying predictions of success. In his historical overview of the development of the relationship of ESL methodology in the teaching of standard English, Feigenbaum observes that some of the ESL techniques seem to work in second dialect teaching while others do not. His own experience, as well as the experience of other researchers, clearly indicates that repetition and imitation drilling is of limited usefulness but that other ESL techniques such as contrast and minimal pair drills, grammatical manipulation drills and tag-response activities appear to have more certain values.[3] For our purposes here, the end results of this relationship of ESL methodology to second dialect acquisition are not of major concern. It is perhaps unfortunate that the apparent successes of some of these strategies come at a time when the methods are under attack even from inside the TESOL constituency. The point is, however, that the dialect problems of inner-city black children were seen by the ESL profession as within their special province. And, to a certain extent, their case can be justified.

Social Dialects and English Teaching

Meanwhile, teachers of elementary and secondary language arts and English in this country saw things in a somewhat different light. This new focus on second dialect acquisition was nothing new to them. Whereas ESL specialists brought their extant methodology to a new situation, English teachers brought neither a methodology nor a tradition of research. The native speaking disadvantaged child was long overlooked in our public schools. His specific problems were not identified by or for the English teachers, despite the long available data of the Linguistic Atlas and a presumed tradition of usage studies. The focus was often over-generalized to such writing problems as subject-pronoun agreement, run-on sentences and spelling. Speech was not thought of as the province of the English class, unless the specific lesson called for students to distinguish between *witch* and *which*[4] or unless the student said *brang* for *brought* in an oral report of some sort. Reading problems, of course, were to have been handled long before language arts or English instruction was to have begun (although reading instruction is sometimes redefined at this time as literary appreciation). In any case, the language arts and English classes could claim that at least part of their function in the school system was to teach standard English to non-standard speakers. That they were not indeed doing so very effectively–if at all–could be attributed to the fact that:

1. Teachers were not trained to do so.
2. Research had not identified the crucial problems.
3. Teaching strategies had not been developed to accomplish this end.
4. Publishers have not had the data upon which to base any resonable sort of sequencing of language arts instruction, justifying why one aspect of standard English is taught at one level and another aspect is taught later.
5. The concept of acquisitional stages had not been developed. That is, all differences from standard English were thought of as wrong rather than as closer or farther away on some sort of continuum. An "error" was thought of as an error, all errors being alike in their wrongness. Thus, a child who spelled *penny* as *pinney* was thought to be as wrong as one who spelled it *peny* or *pnftl.* Little thought was given the reasons for the errors.

(Continued on Page 19)

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*A paper presented at the TESOL Convention, New Orleans, March 1971. Roger W. Shuy is Professor of Linguistics and Director of the Sociolinguistics Program at Georgetown University.

Social Dialects and Second Language Learning

(Continued from Page 5)

All of these sources of failure could be amplified with little difficulty, but for the purposes of this presentation let us merely conclude that the language arts and English teachers had clearly had the mandate to tackle the problems of non-standard English users, but that their tunnel vision along with a kind of predisposition for the more elite aspects of the subject (literature in particular) permitted them to fumble the ball. What would be more natural, then, but for ESL specialists to see the problem and announce that their methodology looked like a reasonable solution. At least they *had* a methodology and it was said to have been successful in the past.

Social Dialects and Speech Instruction

The teachers of speech, like English teachers in general, have held to the assumption that the normal or the correct are definable primarily in light of standard English language production. The common measures of speech behavior in this field, the Goldman-Fristoe Articulation Test, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, and the Illinois test of Psycholinguistic Ability, are all based on standard English. Although speech clinicians are continuously engaged in descriptive research in a diagnostic mode, little or no significant research on the form and function of various social dialects is being undertaken by speech specialists. There is a growing awareness, however, that extant training programs for speech clinicians do not prepare these specialists adequately in the differences between socially induced language variation and actual pathologies. The literature now abounds with horror stories of black children who were given speech therapy when their speech was quite acceptable in the black community.

Thus, it can be seen that although speech might also be considered a proper home for the teaching of standard English to non-standard speakers, the general attitudes and performance of the discipline have been almost totally inconsistent toward this end. Speech, like English, has suffered from an insecurity of some sort that has led teachers to stress either such elitist aspects as debate and eloquence or such pathologies as cleft-palate or stuttering. Meanwhile that area of speech which is related directly to socially induced variation has gone unnoticed, despite the fact that it was right under the profession's nose all the time. Again, since speech specialists did not pick up the ball what is more natural than for ESL teachers to do so?

Social Dialects and Medicine

Since both language arts/English and speech were the historical and natural territories for teaching standard English and since both fields were so long in recognizing this responsibility and so derelict in doing anything about it, one cannot be surprised to see other perhaps less natural territories trying to fill the void. For one thing, one of the characteristics of the early sixties in this country was the rediscovery of a national social conscience. The Title I Program of the U.S.O.E., education for the disadvantaged, is still thought of as one of the crowning achievements of President Johnson's administration. Education, social concerns and politics seemed to lead the way toward this reordered social awareness, with the more elitist disciplines following slowly behind. Psychiatry, for example, is one area which has hardly been touched in the movement even though it is no small accident that the major successes of psychiatrists is with middle class patients whose speech and life-style are similar enough to the psychiatrist to offer no interference. One of the major realizations of educators who work with disadvantaged children has been that we must start with the children *where they are* rather than where *we* are. Of these two modes available in psychiatry, analysts have apparently chosen to let patients adjust to them linguistically rather than to adjust linguistically to the patient.

Medical doctors have not done much better, although a recognition of the need to do so seems to be evident in a recent editorial in *The Annals of Internal Medicine* (the bible of medical research):

> The physician speaks a strange and often unintelligible dialect. . .He speaks of mitral commissurotomes, pituitary insufficiency, and reality feed-back. This world is peopled with cirrhotics, green-sticks, and hebrephrenics. The professional dialect creates a communication gap between physician and patient that is generally acknowledged by neither. Not only does the physician speak a strange dialect, but more often than not he fails to recognize the dialects of his patients.[5]

At least one major medical school has realized this gap in intracultural training, particularly as it relates to social dialects, and is jointly developing a program with monolinquists for obtaining medical histories from ghetto residents.[6]

Social Dialects and the Social Sciences

The social sciences have scarcely even begun to realize the potential usefulness of language data to their fields. American sociology, like American linguistics, has been so busy formalizing its field (with considerable justification) that it has tended to move away from its earlier focus on the ethnology of social problems toward sophisticated techniques of quantitative analysis and large-scale social structure. Of this tendency of sociologists to overlook language as a resource. Joshua A. Fishman observes:

> A concern with language has been contraindicated on yet another score; namely language is often considered to be omnipresent and therefore of no significance in differentiating social behavior. The latter view is undoubtedly related to the monoglot and urbanized nature of the societies best known to the founding fathers of American and European sociology. In addition, American sociology has long been primarily non-comparative and American sociologists themselves, overwhelmingly monolingual.[7]

It was only recently that sociologists have become at all interested in this area, largely as a result of their increased interest in small group dynamics, social change in the community, communications networks and the problems of developing nations. At this time, however, very few sociologists are making contributions to this area.

Social Dialects and Reading

As obvious as it might seem for the influence of social dialects to be felt in the teaching of reading, it has been only within the past two or three years that the topic has even been broached. The concept of language interference seems to be new to the reading profession, despite its obviousness to linguists. Very simply, a child comes to school with an oral language system that differs drastically from that of the written material with which he is taught to read. To be sure, the standard English speaking child's language may also differ from the printed page, but not as drastically as that of the non-standard speaker's. This mismatch of the child's language with the printed page has caused some reading specialists to speculate that this is a contributing cause to such a child's failure to learn to read. Since there is no available way to determine how it is that a child does *not* learn how to read, such specialists have relied on hypothesis testing to determine how important this mismatch really is. Among the current hypotheses being tested are the following:

1. First teach the child standard English.
2. Accept the child's dialect reading of material written in standard English.
3. Develop materials in standard English which minimize dialect and cultural

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differences by avoiding the areas of mismatch.

4. Develop materials which incorporate the grammar of the disadvantaged child.
5. Rely on the experience method of teaching reading. That is, let the teacher write down the child's own words, then let him read them.

The ESL specialist can relate to several of these hypoptheses. Whatever ESL methods have been determined are effective in teaching a second dialect will surely come into play if it is determined that the child should be taught standard English before he is taught to read. If the teachers decide to accept the child's dialect reading of material written in standard English such as *she go* for *she goes*, the teacher will have to be alerted to the precise conditions in which such renderings are to be expected. And this sounds a great deal like the contrastive grammar basis which underlies much ESL teaching. If an avoidance strategy is set up to neutralize the mismatch between the written and text and the child's oral language, the materials developers will have to rely on this same delineation of the contrast between standard English and the speech of disadvantaged children. If it should be decided that special reading material should be developed utilizing the grammar of the child's oral language, it will be necessary to know precisely what that grammar is. And if the experience method is used, thousands of reading teachers are going to need specialized ESL-like training to learn to hear accurately what the child is saying and to avoid editing it to what he would have liked for the child to say.

The Results of This Territorial Overlap

In the preceding paragraphs, I have outlined some of the work in social dialects being done by several disciplines today. Linguists have argued, with justification, that the study of realistic (rather than idealistic) language should lead toward the solution of linguistic problems such as the nature of language change. Therefore, social dialects might be thought of in the domain of linguistics. On the other hand, social scientists might make a strong case for such language data as the foundation for solving problems of social stratification. Few social scientists have done this, with the exception of a handful of anthropologists and even fewer sociologists, despite the fact that language variation might prove to be one of their best analytical instruments. And, of course, the study of language attitudes, that subject which lies somewhere in the territorial overlap of psychology, social science and linguistics, may never be properly assigned to only one discipline.

It is unfortunate that the generally held concept of applied linguistics today is that of ESL alone. Just as the linguist may be stereotyped by his acquaintances as a person who speaks a lot of languages, so an applied linguist is frequently stereotyped as a person who teaches English to foreigners, either in this country or abroad. This situation seems to stem partly from the directions of history but also from an inordinate conservatism on the part of applied linguists in viewing their own discipline. Ten years ago ESL was considerably hotter as a field of research and teaching than it is today. Perhaps this reflected the growing international awareness of our country during the early Kennedy years. But it is not just the stock market which follows the domestic and international moods of the social, political and economic heartbeat of our country. The academic disciplines must also listen for these heartbeats and be ready to plot new courses as the conditions change. David Harris's observations about TESOL's need to adjust itself to other, new conditions such as the rise of interest in the plight of. . ."American children and adults whose academic success and social mobility are severely restricted by the kind of English they use and by their difficulties in dealing with the written word" is the sort of vitalization that any discipline requires. Compared with others, ESL teachers have never been what might be called an elitist group. By definition, their task has been to provide aid to those of all economics, races, ages and sexes. Today there are rumblings of possible relevance to such people, however, even from elitist groups such as physicians and psychiatrists, both of whom are beginning to realize that they have not been very successful with the people from the lower-end of the economic and educational spectrum.

We must recognize that the intentions of ESL teachers as they relate to social dialects are good ones. The question still remains: are ESL teachers the ones to do this? Is the teaching of standard English to non-standard speakers the territory of ESL? Despite the many papers addressed to this topic at this conference, my answer, quite frankly, is no. The territorial overlap of the study of social dialects in the past five years has been indicated somewhat in this paper. Language arts and English departments, speech teachers, reading specialists, psychologists, linguists, sociologists—even the medical profession—might also claim the field as its own. In each case, an equally good case could be made against it. One further complication is that at the moment, the educational implications of social dialect study appear to dominate, no matter which discipline it is housed in. The general area of social dialects will be seriously impaired unless the linguistic, social science and educational components are fed and developed with somewhat equal rigor. Within the field of language education itself, however, no single organization or discipline has a clear claim on the field. In fact, if one field is to be chosen as the educational home for social dialect study, it will have to be considerably broader than any organization now seems to be.

Who, then, should be responsible for the educational implications of dialect study? The answer seems relatively obvious: we have no such organization in this country. That is, we have no Society for the Study of Language in Education, or Society for Applied Linguistics, or something like this, and we have no official organ which represents it. We have journals in which such articles or research could appear (*TESOL Quarterly*, *Language Learning*, the NCTE journals and others), but no place that all types of applied linguists can really call home. It is becoming obvious that there are scholars from many fields who seem to be looking for the same thing. There are reading specialists for example, who are sensitive to the importance of language and would like a forum to discuss their findings among equally language-sensitive, but not necessarily reading research-sensitive, people. There are psychologists and psychiatrists who recognize the importance of language (even social dialect) in the diagnosis and treatment of disturbed people. There are a few sociologists who believe that important clues to group-identity, social stratification, cohesion and mobility can be found in language, particularly through the features which linguists have so far rather grossly correlated with socio-economic status. Some of these scholars have expressed their needs for a forum rather vocally, to the extent, in fact, that it can no longer be ignored. Are we to tell them that they should join with ESL specialists who have not put much attention on investigating the relationship of a child's social dialect to reading problems? Are we to tell sociologists that they are to join forces with ESL people, whose major contribution to sociolinguistics has been a methodology which works in some but not all cases?

It now seems apparent that the break from theoretical linguistics which ESL specialists made a few years ago was narrower than it needed to be. The natural taxonomies are not theoretical linguistics and ESL but theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics. It is unfortunate that so many people consider ESL as synonymous with applied linguistics, for this confusion undoubtedly contributes to problems of territorial

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overlap as noted in this paper. Perhaps the word, *applied*, is the culprit in all this. Some scholars would make a distinction between *applied* linguistics and *relational* linguistics, the difference being one of single direction versus mutual direction emphasis, respectively. That is, when linguistics and sociology combine, it is not simply a case of one discipline taking its knowledge and applying it to a given situation in the other discipline. Instead, it is a case of both disciplines offering their assumptions, techniques and knowledge base to each other. Psycholinguists, sociolinguists, neurolinguists or ethnolinguists do not handle this intersection of knowlege exclusively from one of the disciplines to another. Psycholinguistics is not merely psychology applied to linguistics, or for that matter, linguistics applied to psychology. Applied linguistics, on the other hand, has been thought of by many people as the single direction application of linguistics to education; more specifically, the application of linguistics to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. Now, if we wish to address ourselves to the language problems of disadvantaged native English speakers, we must change the public image of ESL or leave the territory to other fields whose claim on it seems equally defensible. The conservatives may argue that the proper study of ESL is ESL. But the position paper of the TESOL's Committee on Socio-Political Concerns of Minority Groups seems to indicate that another direction is preferable. If we are to take seriously the recommendations of this position paper, which urges that the membership take a leading role in cooperating with communities in which it works, the most obvious thing to do is expand the organization to provide a forum for our co-workers in other fields who are equally anxious to provide this service.

Several things can be accomplished by this. For one thing, those whom TESOL aspires to teach, the vast majority of whom are from minority groups (American Indians, Blacks, Chinese-Americans, Japanese-Americans, Mexican-Americans, Portuguese-Americans, Puerto Ricans and others) will be better served if their language problems are given the combined expertise of a number of relevant fields—not just ESL. *At the moment no such mechanism or forum exists for such a combined effort.* This service will have benefits primarily to our clients.

Secondly, the inevitable and terribly important watch-dog function which relational or applied disciplines can have on the theoretical phases of that same discipline can be better served if the entire spectrum of possible applications and relationships is covered. At the moment applied linguistics is being served in a quite imbalanced way. ESL is served very well. Other areas of application are served only in a helter-skelter fashion (if at all) by linguistics. Sociolinguistics is providing some of that service for social dialects but very little concern is systematically evidenced by linguistics for writing and reading theory or for many other areas. The discipline of linguistics would be largely benefited by such broader coverage.

A third advantage of expanding TESOL to a Society for the Study of Language in Education or a Society for Applied Linguistics would be to the membership itself. It is not widely admitted (and outright hostility will undoubtedly follow this observation) but ESL specialists are often said to be narrow and/or cliquish. Whether or not this observation is accurate, the contact with language teachers and applied linguists with broader interests could have a salutory effect on the membership. There are certain advantages to surrounding oneself with people of similar interests, but the disadvantage of tunnel vision is to be assiduously avoided.

It is fortunate that the case of social dialects in relation to ESL has arisen. It has stimulated the thinking of many people both within and without the territory normally thought of as belonging to TESOL. The lack of a home base for the educational implications of second dialect teaching may have been a distinct blessing, for it has become apparent that we have all benefited from the absence of an inherited orthodoxy. There has been sufficient cross-fertilization of disciplines on an ad-hoc basis to bring this area of research and teaching to the point of at least asking some useful questions, even if answers have not been abundant. It does provide an interesting example, however, of the void which exists in the field of language teaching and applied linguistics. What would be more natural for the Executive Committee of TESOL to do at this time but to consider expanding the organization to provide this much needed service?

TESOL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE ON ROGER SHUY's PAPER

The Executive Committee of TESOL, at its most recent meeting held in Washington, D.C. on October 15, 1971, discussed Dr. Shuy's paper at great length. The Committee gave serious consideration to his recommendation in conjunction with other communications relating to the scope and title of TESOL and the extent to which they accurately reflect the varied interests and activities of the membership. The views expressed during the discussion were quite friendly and sympathetic to the Shuy proposal. However, the Committee concluded that the services that Dr. Shuy calls for are, for the most part, already being provided by the organization. That is to say, its publications and meetings provide an adequate forum for the membership on the subjects of English as a second language, English as a foreign language, bilingual education, and standard English as a second dialect. The Committee felt that, at this stage in the development of the organization, changing the name of the organization or the statement of its purpose in the constitution would not add much to the services already being provided.

The Committee unanimously authorized the publication of Dr. Shuy's paper in the *Newsletter*, thus illustrating that the organization does, indeed, provide a forum for the points of view and interests expressed in the paper.

JOIN TESOL NOW

Write:
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Georgetown University
Washington, D.C. 20007

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[1] David P. Harris, "1970 TESOL Presidential Report to the Membership, *TESOL Newsletter*, Vol. 4, No. 2 & 3 (September/December, 1970) p. 2.

[2] "Position Paper by the Committee on Socio-Political Concerns of Minority Groups in TESOL Feb. 1, 1970," *TESOL Newsletter*, Vol. 4, No. 2 & 3 (September/December 1970) p. 8.

[3] Irwin Feigenbaum, "Using Foreign Language Methodology to Teach Standard English: Evaluation and Adaptation," *Florida FL Reporter* (Spring/Summer 1969) pp. 116-122; 156.

[4] See, for example, chapter 2 in *Better English* (Boston:Ginn and Co., 1952) pp. 24-26.

[5] C.P. Kimball, "Medicine and Dialects," *Annals of Internal Medicine* Vol. 74, No. 1, (January, 1971) pp. 137-139.

[6] This program, currently in the planning stages, will involve the George Washington University Medical School and the Center for Applied Linguistics.

[7] Joshua Fishman, *The Sociology of Language*. The Hague: Mouton, 1968, p. 8.

The Forum

Thinking and Feeling in Two Cultures

*Serafina Krear**

It is axiomatic that a degree of bilingualism and biculturalism is present in every second language program. Even those who would repress the native tongue and who would dedicate their energies toward assimilation rather than cultural pluralism must admit that for a period of time while the target language is being acquired and the native language abandoned, the student is living in a bilingual, bicultural reality. Unfortunately, our present technology leaves both the assimilationist and the pluralist frustrated; one cannot pass through the bilingual period quickly enough, the other cannot attain it completely. It follows then that we are failing either as assimilationists or cultural pluralists. Once we accept the fact that our methods are failing, there is hope that we will cease to double our efforts. We have moved breathlessly from teaching vocabulary, rules, and translation skills to develop listening and speaking skills, then frantically decided that the problem is not lexical, phonological or syntactic but semantic; therefore that it is not in the expressive band of speaking and writing but in the receptive band of listening and reading that we must begin. But, we have never stopped long enough to see why the traditional, audio-lingual and cognitive-code approaches all fall short of their mark. I suggest that we look elsewhere for an answer than in the bottomless pit of technology.

As language teachers, we have developed tomes of "recipes" for installing the lexical, phonological, syntactic and semantic systems of a second language. We have produced great armies of students who can think in the second language but they cannot feel in the second language. In order to communicate effectively with a native speaker, performance must include appropriate emotional responses. There are no pattern drills or cook-book approaches that can teach the student what is in the effective domain of a language and culture. This is not to say, it cannot be learned.

If we believe that when the teacher is an appropriate linguistic model, a high level of linguistic proficiency is established as a potential goal for each student, then it follows that when the teacher is an appropriate cultural model, a high level of cultural proficiency is also established as a potential goal for each student. Herein lies the crux of the matter. Second language teachers reveal their linguistic proficiency as they utter that which is to be imitated, but unless teachers are able to reveal their cultural proficiency by emoting, there is nothing being taught or learned. The essence of cultural transmission is in human communication not in information about the culture. When we made the transition to the audio lingual approach, we were very emphatic as we preached, "speaking a language is not knowing about the language." I add to that, "feeling in a culture is not knowing about the culture." If we learn to speak, by hearing and speaking, then we learn to feel, by feeling and being felt.

A humanistic approach says to the teacher, be a person and not a machine to your students; reveal your feelings as a human being and in so doing you are teaching what you are. You are modeling in the affective domain wherein the culture lies.

Assimilationists and cultural pluralists alike must attend to the affective domain whether the goal is to move the student quickly and totally to the target language or whether bilingualism and biculturalism is the terminal objective. An integral and integrating approach includes a balance in the cognitive and affective domains and produces students who can think and feel in the language. And that's as it should be!

**Dr. Krear is Assistant Professor, School of Education, Sacramento State College.*

TESOL Newsletter

A professional organization for those concerned with the teaching of English as a second or foreign language.

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The Teaching of English in Puerto Rico

Paquita Viñas de Vazquez*

Puerto Rico, a small island in the Caribbean, 1,000 miles southeast of Florida, U.S.A. was discovered by Christopher Columbus on his second voyage in 1493. The island was inhabited by peaceful Taino Indians. Spanish colonization of Puerto Rico started soon thereafter and the Taino population gradually disappeared, not without first leaving the imprints of its culture on the *colonos*.

The Spaniards made Puerto Rico an agricultural colony, once they had disposed of the existing gold, and then imported African slaves to work on the sugar cane plantations.

After almost 500 years of Spanish domination, Puerto Rico, with few resources and a population in which the pride of the Taino Indian, the ambition of the Spanish *conquiatador*, and the sturdiness of the African slave had skillfully blended, was ceded by Spain to the United States at the close of the Spanish-American War in 1898. Puerto Rico was a U.S. territory until 1952 when it became a Commonwealth.

Today, Puerto Rico faces problems common to modern societies: overpopulation (2.8 million people on 3,500 square miles of land), unemployment (12%), low per capita income as compared to the U.S. ($3,000 a year per family), and even rush hour *tapones*[1] (1 car per 5 persons). Yet, it is one of the few places in which different races and religions co-exist, except for occasional demonstrations by dissenting groups, with as great a measure of harmony as can be expected in today's world.

English Language Policies 1898-1947

Up until 1898 Spanish had been the official language and the only language in Puerto Rico. That year marked the beginning of the teaching and learning of English in Puerto Rico. It also marked the beginning of the blending of two cultures, a situation which has met with considerable passive resistance, the majority of the Puerto Ricans being strongly traditional and resistant to change.

Six major changes in language policy in Puerto Rico occurred between 1898 and 1947. The first change was introduced by Dr. Martin Brumbaugh who became Commissioner of Education in 1900. The Brumbaugh policy provided for the teaching of English and Spanish as subjects beginning in the first grade. Spanish was to be used also as the medium of instruction in the elementary grades 1-8 while English was to be the medium of instruction in the secondary grades 9-12. Spanish was to be taught as a special subject in the secondary grades.

Commissioner Roland Faulkner introduced the second major change in 1905. He aimed at the use of English as the medium of instruction in all the grades of the public school system.

Commissioner Paul Miller introduced the third major change in 1916. Spanish became the language of instruction in grades 1-4, both English and Spanish in grade 5, English in the remaining grades, 6-12. The study of English and Spanish as subjects continued in both the elementary and the high school.

Dr. José Padín introduced the fourth major change in 1934. He made Spanish the language of instruction in the elementary level (grades 1-8) and doubled the time devoted to English as a subject

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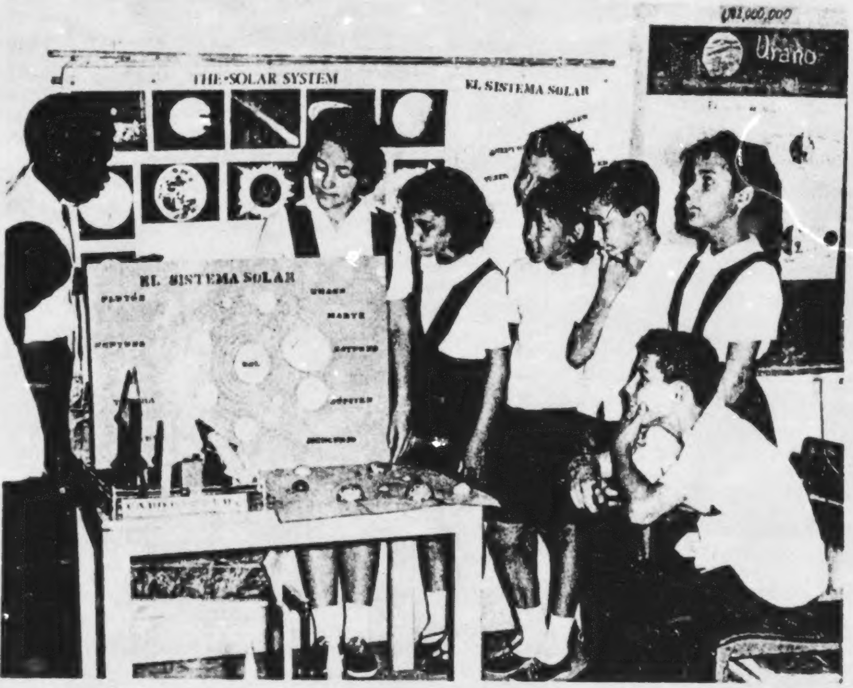

Puerto Rican Students Visit a Science Exhibit
Courtesy of Commonwealth of Puerto Rico Information Office, Washington, D.C.

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PUERTO RICO

(Continued from page 1)

from forty-five to ninety minutes in the seventh and eighth grades.

Dr. José Gallardo introduced the fifth major change in 1937. It involved a series of policies evolving from an effort to use both English and Spanish as media of instruction. Some subjects were taught in Spanish and others were taught in English. The final development was instruction in the vernacular in the elementary school.

Commissioner Mariano Villaronga introduced the sixth major change in 1947. He made Spanish the medium of instruction at all levels of the public school system. In 1948 he initiated the English Program which is in effect today.

Ralph Robinett, director of the English Program in Puerto Rico from 1960 to 1963 wrote in *The Teaching of English as a Second Language in Puerto Rico*: "The Villaronga policy is the culmination of a long struggle between those who were most interested in the general education of Puerto Rican youth and those who were most interested in the general education of Puerto Rican youth and those who were most interested in the ability of Puerto Ricans to speak English. Those who were in favor of Spanish as the medium of instruction realized that Puerto Rico must first be interested in ensuring an adequate education for its coming generations. Those who were in favor of English as the medium of instruction were generally either politically motivated or lacked insight into the role of Spanish in the social-cultural life of Puerto Rico."

The matter which caused Puerto Rican education so many setbacks was settled for good. The policy since 1947 has been the teaching of English as a subject and the use of Spanish as the medium of instruction in all the grades of the public school system beginning in the first grade.

Premises Underlying the English Program

Underlying the formal English curriculum in Puerto Rico are two broad objectives: (1) to develop in the pupils the ability to understand, speak, read, and write English, and (2) to develop in the pupils habits of using English as a vehicle of communication. Also underlying the English curriculum are a series of premises[2] which serve as the basis for the selection and preparation of the material to be taught and how it is to be taught. These premises are:

- The essential elements of a language may be identified through an analysis of the language as it functions in actual usage and as it contrasts in actual usage in the vernacular of the learner.
- The essential elements to be learned by all students are the elements with the greatest recurrence, which are the points of contrast in the sound system and structure; the vocabulary needed for the communication process will vary with the learner's interest and experiences.
- For productive use the student needs a minimum of language forms to cover a maximum number of situations; for receptive use the student must learn to respond to a wide variety of language forms, as he has no control over the linguistic habits of others.
- There are three basic stages in the language learning process: the initial stage is one of simple imitation on the part of the learner; the second stage is one in which the learner consciously selects a particular form in his attempt to communicate; the third stage is one in which the learner demonstrates a degree of automatic control over an item by using it more or less spontaneously.
- The essential elements of a language are most efficiently and economically learned if they are organized and presented in a systematic sequence.
- Language learning occurs best in practice where the focus of attention is consistently on meaningful communication.
- An oral approach with the reinforcements of reading and writing is the most practical approach to teaching English to the large majority of children in the public schools of Puerto Rico:

> The basis of language is sound; therefore in the early stages reading must stem from, rather than precede, oral practice.
>
> The graphic representation of English does not provide for many features of the sound system which constitute an integral part of the material to be mastered.
>
> The graphic system does not consistently represent the sound segments; many sounds have multiple spellings and vice versa.
>
> In the early stages the learner is confused by the interference of the spelling system of his vernacular if reading precedes oral practice.
>
> In the early stages, guided oral practice affords an opportunity

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> for faster habit formation than would occur in the extensive use of reading materials as a basic approach.
>
> In the early stages, the natural order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing is the most efficient order to achieve four-fold mastery of language forms.

As would be expected we teach English orally in the first and second grades to give pupils a background in oral English before they start reading in the second language and to allow them a couple of years in which to learn to read and write in the vernacular (Spanish). For the teaching of oral English in the first and second grades, we have prepared interest-centered language units, picture books, and picture cards.

Reading is initiated in the third grade and for that purpose, we have prepared a pre-primer, *Our Animal Friends*, based on the major spelling patterns of English; a teacher's guide and sets of the 70 most outstanding pictures in the pre-primer, to be used for teacher training purposes and to give the children the opportunity of listening to the voices of native speakers of the language, in the event the teacher in charge is not a native speaker as is usually the case.

From the fourth through the twelfth grade we have two parallel programs: a language program in which English structures and vocabulary are presented orally and reinforced by reading and writing, and a reading program which stresses the development of reading skills and the acquisition of vocabulary on both productive and receptive levels.

For grades 4-7 we have prepared a language series, the *American English Series*, Books I, II, III, and a reader series, *The English Reader Series*, which consists of four readers: *New Friends, Fun, Fancy and Adventure, Heroes in Fact and Fable*, and *Tales from Life and Legend*. The *American English Series* is actually a revision of the first three books of the *Fries American English Series*, a pioneer effort produced under the direction of Dr. Pauline Rojas, former director of the English Program, and under the consultantship of the late Dr. Charles Fries. Teachers' guides and tapes accompany the *American English Series*. Teachers' manuals and children's workbooks[3] accompany the *English Reader Series*. A tape of *New Friends* was also prepared and is being used by fourth grade teachers and pupils.

The *Fries American English Series* was used for language instruction for many years and is still being used to some extent. However, realizing that motivation is vitally important in language learning and that both teachers and pupils (especially secondary level pupils) were becoming dissatisfied with the same materials and the same approach, we have decided to try out new materials such as the *Lado English Series*, published by Regents Publishing Co.; the *English for Today* series, prepared by the National Council of Teachers of English and published by McGraw-Hill; and the *Let's Learn English* series published by the American Book Co. At the time the *Fries American English Series* was prepared there were practically no materials scientifically prepared for teaching English as a second language. Today there is an abundance of materials to choose from.

New materials for the teaching of reading skills at the junior and senior high levels are being tried out. For both language and reading instruction, the time devoted to English in each grade, and the attitudes, skills and concepts the pupils are expected to acquire at each level, we have prepared the *Outline Summary of the English Curriculum in the Elementary School* and the *Outline Summary of the English Curriculum in the Secondary School*.[4]

Also, for the purpose of revamping the teaching of English at the secondary level, we are implementing several federally funded projects. Some of these are the Pronunciation Course for the Seventh Grade, Proposal for the Development of Reading Skills at the Intermediate Level, and the Right to Read proposal.[5]

We are also offering elective courses at the twelfth grade level: Conversational English, Drama, American Literature, Composition, and Advanced Placement. The Conversational English course is geared to those students who are not college-bound, and who will perhaps move to the continental United States in search of better opportunities for work. The remaining elective courses aim to strengthen college-bound students in the aforementioned areas.

TESOL NEWSLETTER
Teachers of English
to Speakers
of Other Languages (TESOL):

A Professional Organization for Those
Concerned with the Teaching of English
as a Second or Foreign Language

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Newsletter available through membership only.

To supplement the basic curriculum we have language and reading laboratories, TV programs, classroom listening centers, reading corners, school libraries, a Curriculum Center, etc. As Professor Ralph B. Long of the University of Puerto Rico states in *The Puerto Rican Experience in English as a Second Language* (1964), "A great deal of experience has been accumulated, and materials of many kinds have been developed. I do not know where else, in this hemisphere, so great an accumulation of experience can be found, or so much interest in pertinent developments in the field. Both teaching and research in English as a second language can be done in Puerto Rico under uniquely favorable conditions. Puerto Rico would seem to be without equal in this hemisphere in its potentialities as a place to train teachers of English as a second language, especially for Spanish-speaking areas."

Main Problems

In spite of almost 75 years of experience with the teaching of English as a second language in Puerto Rico we still have many problems. Many educators feel that the lack of teacher preparation is our biggest problem; others feel that the lack of motivation, especially at the secondary level, is the greater problem. There is an enthusiasm for English at the elementary level that gradually but steadily melts away beginning in the seventh grade. At the junior high school level the student is old enough to begin questioning the importance and the need for learning some of the things that the school curriculum forces him to learn. English is not the language of everyday life in Puerto Rico; there is no immediate need for the student to learn the language. The promise that some day he will get a better-paying job if he knows English or that he will do better work at the university (if he belongs in the 10% who go to college) does not make the sacrifice of learning a second language seem worthwhile. The young adolescent is not interested in the future; he is interested in the here and now. Conversely, the Puerto Rican child who moves to the United States will need English to succeed in school and also for everyday life. He will have the built-in motivation to learn English that his counterpart in Puerto Rico definitely lacks.

At the senior high level, students begin to show interest in politics and some are deeply influenced by the opinion of some political groups: "Learn-

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(Continued from page 3)

ing English will gradually adulterate the mother tongue Spanish, and will undermine the Spanish culture."

Fortunately, there is still a tremendous interest in obtaining high grades, especially since each year it becomes increasingly difficult to be admitted to the universities. The present enrollment at the University of Puerto Rico is over 25,000, and only those students with a B+ average who make a high grade on the college entrance examination have the chance to gain admittance to the Río Piedras university. (One-third of the examination, 800 points, is on English.) Therefore, the secondary school teacher of English has to make use of all his resources to get his students properly motivated.

Studies such as those conducted by Dr. Wallace Lambert and described in his *Psychological Approaches to Second Language Learning and Bilingualism* indicate that motivation plays an extremely important role in second language learning Describing the results of studies carried out in Montreal he writes: " two independent factors underlie the development of skill in learning a second language: an intellectual capacity and an appropriate attitudinal orientation toward the other language group, coupled with a determined motivation to learn the language." Of the two kinds of motivation he discusses instrumental and integrative the latter is apparently the most effective. A student's motivation to learn a second language is determined by his attitudes toward speakers of that language and by his orientation toward learning that language. Students with an integrative orientation do better than those instrumentally oriented. Because of the geographical distance between Puerto Rico and the United States, our limited contact with native speakers of English, as well as the lack of opportunities to use the language, it is extremely difficult to give students this type of integrative motivation.

Surprisingly, on the other hand, the findings of the 1970 U.S. census, as reported in the January 7, 1973 *San Juan Star*, indicate that Puerto Rico is becoming a bilingual society perhaps even more rapidly than is realized. The Census Bureau reported that more the 38 percent of Puerto Rico's population could speak English; that only about one third of the 1.6 million people 10 years and older who either did not or had not yet finished high school were able to speak English; and yet that of 470,000 high school graduates, more than 403,000 spoke English.

These findings are, in the opinion of this writer, a credit to the English Program of Puerto Rico's public school system. It must be pointed out that private institutions on the island too contribute substantially to education and to the teaching of English.

The second largest problem is, of course, the shortage of well-prepared teachers of English. It has been said that all that is needed for a successful language program are good materials and a good model to imitate. Puerto Rico has adequate materials for the teaching of English as a second language, but good models in the classroom are quite often not available. Many teachers are nonnative speakers of English who lack, especially at the primary and elementary levels, the necessary skills and academic preparation. Although there are several teacher training colleges and universities (University of Puerto Rico with the main campus in Río Piedras and six branches, Interamerican University with the main campus in San German and nine branches, Catholic University in Ponce, College of the Sacred Heart in San Juan, World University and Junior College in Río Piedras, and Central University in Bayamon), the number of teachers prepared is always smaller than the number required. In addition, teachers are taking positions in private industry where the incentives of high salaries and fringe benefits outweigh dedication to the teaching profession.

In order to alleviate the teacher shortage the government offers provisional appointments to candidates who have not fulfilled the following requirements: a Bachelor of Arts degree in elementary education, or a normal diploma plus 24 credits in English and a course on the teaching of English as a second language for teaching in elementary schools, and a Bachelor of Arts degree in education with a major in English for teaching in secondary schools.

Fortunately, in 1968, under the auspices of a sympathetic administration and with the help of U.S. government funds, the English Program started several teacher-training projects, many of which are underway, several with excellent results.

One project which deserves mention and which could be implemented in other parts of the world where bilingual programs suffer from inadequately trained teachers is the Bilingual Teachers Program. The objective of this Title V Law 90-35 and Title I Law 89-10 program is to prepare 2,000 teachers of English in a period of five years or less by training Puerto Rican high school graduates or first- or second-year college students who (1) received their education on the mainland (U.S.A.), (2) are native speakers of English, (3) were unable to pursue further studies because of economic conditions, (4) enjoy working with small children, and (5) would like to make teaching their profession. As a result of this work-study program which started in 1969, more than one thousand provisional teachers are teaching English in grades 1-3. What was once thought of as a never-to-be-realized dream of departmentalizing the primary level, now appears to be an attainable goal.

Even though about one-third of the government's budget is for education, an ever-increasing population makes for ever-increasing problems such as too few adequate schools and well-trained teachers, overcrowded classrooms, double enrollment and interlocking, lack of textbooks and materials, etc. Additionally, a high dropout rate, especially in rural areas, is of current concern.

Teacher and Supervisory Staff

Puerto Rico has a highly centralized public school system which is directed by the Department of Education. The head of this department is the Secretary of Education[6] and a member of the governor's cabinet. The Department of Education formulates the educational policies which are then relayed to the six educational regions: San Juan, Ponce, Mayaguez, Arecibo, Humacao, and Caguas.

The educational regions work in conjunction with Puerto Rico's 80 school districts in the implementation of the educational policies formulated by the Department of Education.

The Assistant Secretary of Education for academic programs which include English, Spanish, social studies, science, and mathematics, and the program directors are responsible for the preparation and implementation of the school curriculum.

The director of the English Program[7] is also the head of the English Section located in the Department of Education in Hato Rey. The director and her staff composed of seven general supervisors and eight curriculum technicians are responsible for the preparation and acquisition of materials for the teaching of English as a second language and for the orientation of regional and zone supervisors in the use of materials and on teaching techniques.

At present there are about 6,500 teachers teaching English in the public schools from the first to the twelfth grade. Working directly on the local level with the teachers and principals in providing in-service training and orientation on materials and teaching technique are 100 zone supervisors assigned to the offices of the superintendents of schools. In addition to having considerable experience teaching English, these professionals also have graduate degrees in linguistics,

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applied linguistics, English as a second language, supervision, etc.

Coordinating the work of the zone supervisors, providing consultant services to the local school organizations, and channeling new materials to the zone supervisors and teachers are fourteen regional supervisors. Two supervisors each are assigned to the regional offices of Arecibo, Ponce, Mayaguez, Caguas, and Humacao, and four to San Juan.

English for Adults

The Adult Education Program of the Department of Education started its English Program for Adults in 1953. Since then about 120,000 adults including secretaries, sales clerks, hotel employees, farm laborers, industrial workers, policemen, cab drivers, etc. have profited from the English courses offered by this program.

Courses include a five-month conversational English course, the teaching of English through TV, the teaching of English to farm laborers at their place of employment, and a course on North American culture.

The conversational English course is offered in August and January each year. The Adult Program is planning to offer a similar course to groups of professionals and industrial workers who are not proficient in English. This and the other English courses for adults listed above are offered anywhere on the island when twenty of more persons are interested in taking them.

The Future of English in Puerto Rico

The success of the English Program in Puerto Rico depends to a large extent on the interest of the political party in power. Every change of administration influences the teaching and learning of English to no small degree. Unquestionably, parents do, in general strongly favor having their children learn English. Thus, there is good reason to believe that English will be a part of the curriculum for many years to come.

In spite of this positive attitude, complete bilingualism will perhaps never be attained because of the general conditions and circumstances cited earlier. Functional bilingualism is a more realistic objective. It represents different things for different students: for students in general, the ability to meet their communication needs in Puerto Rico; for students who move to the continental United States, the basis for a rapid linguistic assimilation in an English-speaking environment; and for college-bound students, the skills and habits necessary to successfully pursue studies with textbooks and instruction in English.

The present government of Puerto Rico has publicly expressed its views toward English in our schools—more and better English for all Puerto Ricans. We welcome this policy and extend our cooperation and professional support in its implementation.

Footnotes

1. Traffic jams.

2. These premises were listed by Ralph Robinett in The Teaching of English in the Public Schools of Puerto Rico *and are still considered valid.*

3. Two workbooks are in preparation.

4. Available upon request.

5. Information on these projects will be available at the 1973 TESOL Convention.

6. Mrs. Celeste Benítez de Rexach, former professor at the University of Puerto Rico, is the Secretary of Education.

7. Dr. Adela M. Mendez, former professor at the University of Puerto Rico, is director of the English Program.

TESOL PRESIDENT 1973–74

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OUR VIETNAMESE

Mary Galvan, in a recent speech at Northeastern Illinois University to the membership of Illinois TESOL, made the statement that she felt that the influx of the Vietnamese into this country, and in particular as was reflected by their educational needs, was perhaps "the single greatest event to happen to American education in this century." Not only was the reaction to meeting the needs of this sudden population explosion affecting TESOL, because of its expertise in English Language teaching, but also affecting the whole educational process, in Washington, through educational policy and educational grants and also right in the classroom. Despite our national "awareness," our sensitivity to this almost instant population gain, our feelings of obligation in terms of their plight, despite over ten years of familiarity vis a vis the various news media, with names like Da Nang, My Lai, Diem, Ky, etc., we know very little of the peoples or the cultures of Indochina.

The Center of Applied Linguistics, under a six month grant from the Department of Health Education and Welfare, has set up, under Kent Sutherland of Cañada College, a clearinghouse to assist with the solving of language and educational problems being faced by the Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees. If you are not familiar with their materials they are listed below. Many of the materials such as the pamphlet on "Tutoring," have relevance and practicality for all language teachers. In addition to some of the series guides there are other materials, that are of value to any ESL teacher. We have taken the liberty of excerpting from some of these below. The materials are well written and well put together. They are short, concise, practical, relative, and useful. Dr. Sutherland and the rest of his team at the Center and in California are to be complimented on putting them together so well and so rapidly. There have been, to date, three Indochinese Refugee Alert Bulletins and a large number of pamphlets for teachers and administrators dealing with Vietnamese.

The first Bulletin, issued in August of this year, listed, in addition to a "Hotline" Watts number for those persons in using the clearinghouse services (800 336-3040) a series of six handbooks which can be ordered by writing to CAL, 1611 North Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. The "handbooks" are worth listing:

1. "English-Vietnamese Phrasebook with Useful Word List" (for Vietnamese speakers). This is a survival phrase book with a two-way mini-dictionary designed to meet the immediate language needs of refugees upon their resettlement. It comes with a 90-minute and a 120-minute cassette tape. The book is $3.00 and the tapes $13.00.

2. "Vietnamese-English Phrasebook with Useful Word List" (for English Speakers). This book is intended as a guide for Americans to simplified Vietnamese. It has easy to follow transcription and a one-way mini-dictionary. It is $2.00 and the 90 minute cassette tape that accompanies it is $6.00.

3. "A Handbook for Teachers of Vietnamese Students: Hints for Dealing with Cultural Differences in Schools." The pamphlet makes cross-cultural comparisons between Vietnamese and American school environments with suggestions to teachers to help reduce possible culture shock for Vietnamese students. ($1.00). This booklet is divided into four parts. Part 1 deals with hints for dealing with cultural differences in classroom situations with suggested approaches for teachers on such items as forms of address, courtesy, shyness, counseling, contact with parents, etc. Part 2 gives detailed information about the Vietnamese educational system including cultural conflicts relevant to the school environment and includes such areas of information as the Vietnamese smile, Vietnamese concepts of time and color. Part 3 defines vocabulary items on Vietnamese High School Diplomas and certificates and Part 4 lists references on Vietnamese which are generally available to the teacher and administrator.

4. "A Selected Annotated Bibliography for Teaching English to Speakers of Vietnamese." This is a good general bibliography useful for anyone who wants a list of those standard materials in all areas of ESL education from pre-reading through adult, from texts through dictionaries. It includes lists of tests, other bibliographies, and reference works on the Vietnamese language also. ($1.50)

5. "A Personnel Resources Directory for the Education of Vietnamese Refugees." Lists abstracts on Vietnamese and American educators including experts who can offer technical assistance to school districts ($1.00).

6. "A Colloquium on the Vietnamese Language." This is a taped presentation which considers the differences between the Vietnamese and English languages. It discusses the sounds and grammar of Vietnamese and includes a question and answer period. Tape and handout are $6.50.

Also in Bulletin #1 is a paragraph about Vietnamese names which is interesting and certainly useful whether you have one Southeast Asian student or a hundred.

"NAMES: Names are written in Vietnam in this order:

Nguyen	Van	Tam
(family name)	(middle)	(first)

He is called: Mr. Tam. His wife's name may be different: Tran Thi Mai (Mrs. Mai, or Mrs. Tam, whichever way she prefers to be addressed) Their children will *usually* bear the father's family name. (Nguyen Thi Lien (daughter); Nguyen Xuan Tai (son))."

In addition to the CAL hotline, there is also a college assistance hotline available to assist with problems faced by present or potential Vietnamese and Cambodian college and university students regarding admission, tuition, proper forms, housing, etc.) Pete Bradford is directing the program at Georgetown University, (800 424-2790).

There is also a Job Hotline established by the Interagency Task Force for the resettlement of Indochinese refugees for prospective employers of refugees. If you have a full or part time job opening (teacher, teacher aide, translator, etc.), call 800 368-1180.

Besides the CAL publications listed above the bulletin also lists two other useful free pamphlets. The Red Cross has published a small phrase book for refugees called *Your New Country* The phrasebook also includes a mini two way dictionary. A limited number of copies are available by contacting your local Red Cross Chapter or the American Naitonal Red Cross Headquarters, 17th St. N.W., Washington, DC 20006.

A brief *Orientation Handbook* for refugees has been published by the Interagency Task Force and distributed at each of the relocation centers Information is written in both English and Vietnamese and the Dept. of HEW is distributing the handbook.

Bulletin #2, issued in September, lists a wide variety of "guides" which the clearinghouse has planned a number of which are presently available. They fall into seven categories: General Education, Preschool, Elementary Education, Intermdiate Education, Secondary Education, Adult Education, and Educational Administration.

Currently available are: In the General Education Series: "Hints for Tutors" (It contains not only some sensible and useful hints about what

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OUR VIETNAMESE

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to do and not to do as a tutor, but some sample lesson plans and a short bibliography of helpful materials for tutors or teachers); "Testing English Language Proficiency" (which contains a good thorough list of tests with a description of what they test and, again, a bibliography of testing materials). "Education in Vietnam: Fundamental Principles and Curricula" (a general survey which also includes a set of Elementary Curriculum Guides); "Teaching English Pronunciation to Vietnamese" (This is a general guide to the teaching of English pronunciation and also includes a list of pronunciation problems for Vietnamese learning English and a section on how to adapt existing ESL materials); "Teaching English to Vietnamese—Textbooks." (The purpose of this bulletin is to give the American with no prior experience in teaching EFL/ESL some idea of the range of ESL textbooks and what they are like. It is not a bibliography but rather a discussion of what textbooks are like, what they do, etc.); "A Brief Look at the Vietnamese Language: Sounds and Spellings" (Gives a short description of the sound and spelling systems of the Vietnamese language. Also gives practical information on such matters as pronouncing Vietnamese names, reading handwriting and using a Vietnamese-English dictionary or phrasebook).

The Preschool Education series contains bulletins on "English as a Second Language in Kindergarten—Orientation and Scheduling"; Teaching Pronunciation and Grammar (which includes a set of guidelines for language instruction, how to develop language drills, samples of various drill techniques, and some language games); "Testing Young Children"; and "Language and Concept Development (which includes sections on such things as naming people and objects, following directions, describing objects, making comparisons, and telling stories).

Available in the Elementary Education Series are "On Keeping Lines of Communication with Indochinese Children Open," and "Classroom Instructions in Vietnamese/Inside the Classroom."

The Educational Administrator Series includes "On Assimilating Vietnamese and Cambodian Students into U.S. Schools" (which lists some suggestions for the administrator and his staff); and "Meeting the English Language Needs of Indochinese Students" (which describes how to set up a good basic program and answers some general questions involving such program needs).

The Bilingual/Bicultural Series bulletin currently available is called "Information for Administrators and Teachers" (which generally describes what a bilingual/bicultural program should contain).

Bulletin #2 also lists a number of other publications available to teachers and administrators working with Vietnamese: The Interagency Task Force has printed the *Standard Pronouncing English-Vietnamese Dictionary* and a *Cambodian-English Glossary*. Both dictionaries can be obtained by calling (202) 254-8606 or writing Belinda McLaughlin, Interagency Task Force, 1717 K Street, N.W., Room 820, Washington, DC. Also available is "Tips on the Care and Adjustment of Vietnamese and Other Asian Children in the United States," a booklet written for adoptive parents but of use to teachers as well. It covers such topics as adjustment, shock, and health, information, and adjustment hints. Single copies free from Children's Bureau, Office of Child Development, HEW, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, DC 20013.

The American Indochinese Assistance Center has published an *American-Indochinese Journal*, a bilingual journal which appears monthly. Subscriptions are available, free of charge, by writing AIA Center, PO Box 19553, Washington, DC 20037.

Bulletin #3, issued in October lists another Refugee Newspaper called *New Life*. It is a tri-lingual (Vietnamese, English, and Cambodian) paper which appears twice a month and will be sent, free of charge, to refugees, sponsors, and teachers. To be placed on the mailing list, write: *New Life*, IATF/OSP, 1717 K St., N.W., Room 820, Washington, DC 20006.

Each of the Bulletins also lists the most recent refugee resettlement data. As of October 13 over 100,000 refugees had been resettled in the U.S. Of that total, the highest number have settled in California, followed by Texas, Washington, DC, Florida, and Washington. Some 28,000 refugees still remain in relocation centers (Chaffee, Pendleton, Indiantown Gap), while over 6,000 have been resettled in third countries, mainly Canada and France. Of note to educators is that approximately 46% of the refugee population is under 17 years of age. The number of refugees resettled by state is as follows: Alabama (1,172), Alaska (78), Arkansas (1,753), Arizona (915), California (24,065), Colorado (1,423), Connecticut (1,015), Delaware (102), D.C. (1,192), Florida (5,002), Georgia (1,195), Hawaii (1,957), Idaho (367), Illinois (3,008), Indiana (1,358), Iowa (1,494), Kansas (1,465), Kentucky (694), Louisiana (2,548), Maine (349), Maryland (2,018), Massachusetts (967), Michigan (1,574), Minnesota (3,339), Mississippi (369), Missouri (2,064), Montana (192), Nebraska (890), Nevada (331), New Hampshire (140), New Jersey (1,461), New Mexico (402), New York (3,223), North Carolina (1,058), North Dakota (382), Ohio (2,295), Oklahoma (3,181), Oregon (1,780), Pennsylvania (5,326), Rhode Island (196), South Carolina (660), South Dakota (410), Tennessee (682), Texas (7,459), Utah (519), Vermont (126), Virginia (3,201), Washington (3,785), West Virginia (128), Wisconsin (1,564), Wyoming (105), Guam (618), American Samoa (1), Puerto Rico (1).

Bulletin #3 also offers a "Glimpse of a Confucian Tradition."

"Vietnamese education is generally viewed as a synthesis of the traditional and the modern. The modern is usually understood to be the academic disciplines of the West introduced to Vietnam from the 17th century on, with the opening of the country to Western influences. The traditional is represented principally by the study of Confucian thought as set forth in the four classical texts called Four Books and the five canonical works entitled Five Classics. Although in present-day Vietnam the study of Confucian texts is no longer practiced in schools, the spirit of Confucian teaching still permeates Vietnamese life and is an important factor in the Vietnamese view of education. To help the American teacher gain an insight into the Vietnamese educational system, we reproduce a passage from one of the Four Books, (The Great Learning).

"The great learning consists in preserving man's clear character, in giving new life to the people, and in dwelling in perfection. Only after knowing the goal of perfection, can one have a definite purpose in life. Only after having a definite purpose in life can one achieve calmness of mind. Only after having achieved calmness of mind, can one achieve knowledge. There are a foundation and a superstructure in the constitution of things, and a beginning and an end in the course of events. Therefore, to know the relative order of things is the beginning of wisdom."

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What is Bilingual Education and What Makes Bilingual Program Work?

Ann Carlovich,
and Ernestine Hazuka
West N.Y. Learning Center in N.J.

The NJTESOL/NJBE and the Lakewood Bilingual Consortium (Lakewood, Paterson and Elizabeth) sponsored a Spring Conference at Jersey City State College on April 30, 1975.

The keynote speaker was Dr. Joshua Fishman of Yeshiva University, the well-known sociologist, sociolinguist and author. Some of his writings include: "The Language of Nationalism," "The Sociology of Language" and "Socio-Linguistics: A Brief Introduction."

Through an extensive HEW research grant, Fishman has visited and surveyed over 50,000 educational units in over 100 countries. He has found that although bilingual education is comparatively new to the United States, it is a well-established form of education throughout the world. He further found that bilingual education varies considerably from one country to another and even from one school within a country to another. Fishman categorized bilingual education into three types on the basis of his investigations:

1. *Transitional bilingual education.* The aim of this form of bilingual education is to ease the transition of the students who speak one language into the school system which is based on the speaking of a second, different language. Fishman defines the languages as *marked* (the language which would not ordinarily be used in the school if there were no bilingual education program) and *unmarked* (the language normally used by the majority of the society or normally used in the schools). Words often heard in connection with transitional bilingual education are words like: disadvantaged, adjust to school, join the mainstream. The social goal for this type of program is to serve as an "antidote" to prepare disadvantaged groups to learn the unmarked language so that they may more easily join the mainstream of society or of the school. The United States has many transitional bilingual education programs.

2. *Song and dance bilingual education.* The aim of this form of bilingual education is to maintain one language (usually the marked language) which has an oral history of song, dance, and story-telling. The unmarked language is usually the one in which business is carried on and in which material is written. This form of bilingual education is often associated with nationalistic movements; the marked language is promoted as a way of solidifying the culture, dignifying the historical past, and elevating the status of the common man. This form of education was found by Fishman among American Indian groups and in African countries.

3. *Biliterate bilingual education.* The aim of this form of bilingual education is to have the students learn and maintain two languages. Both of the languages usually have equal status within the country or the school system. An example of this form of education is in Canada with English and French. Fishman has noticed two forms of biliterate bilingual education: one in which there is a functional allocation of which subjects are to be taught in which language in the classroom and this corresponds to the way the languages are used in the society. (In Canada, French-speaking children are taught courses which deal with interpersonal relations, home, family in French while math is taught in English because this is the way in which the children will probably use their languages.) The other form of biliterate bilingual education is more haphazard: classes are taught in one language or in the other because teachers, texts or other materials happen to be available in that language.

Fishman stated that, in general, bilingual education is usually intended to be compensatory education or it is instituted as a response to ethnic or nationalistic movements of minority groups who wish to preserve a dying language or a dying culture. Bilingual education is seldom instituted with its goal being a better education for all.

In his investigations, Fishman has attempted to find out what factors make a bilingual program successful from several points of view: the whole educational community's point of view, a comparison of the bilingual school with other schools in the community, and from the student's point of view.

Several factors were found to be essential. In measuring absolute and relative academic success, the most important factors (there was over a 90% correlation) were: community support (those programs which had most community support were the most successful) and equal balance of students (those programs which had a balance of students whose language was the unmarked language)—less successful were those bilingual programs which were only intended for the minority group or the disadvantaged group. Programs which taught subjects in the language which would be appropriate in society were more successful than programs which taught subjects in any language that they happened to have textbooks in or which taught a course in whichever language the teacher who was assigned to that class happened to speak. Students were most satisfied with programs in which they were allowed a period of grace in which they were free to choose whether to answer a question in their native language or the new language (immersion programs were much less popular).

His closing remarks were directed not only to ESL teachers but to all language teachers. Fishman stated that educators do not usually question the importance of teaching other subjects, but when they do, the other subjects can state a rationale for their importance by stating needs which the society has for their existence. However, when languages are challenged, the rationale which is most often given is: "It's good to know another language." History teachers would never justify their classes by saying: "It's good to know another history." Fishman urged language teachers to justify their courses in societal terms. He feels that bilingual education offers a legitimate base for language for, perhaps, the first time. Therefore, he felt that it is to the benefit of all language teachers to support bilingual education.

He concluded by saying that one of the most serious problems we, as language teachers, have in the area of methodology and content in the classroom is that students usually learn nothing in language classes except the language. When students learn to read, they are also able to learn information at the same time. Language is a vehicle through which that which is unknown is made known to another person or persons. "The book is on the table" is not something which ordinarily needs to be communicated. Bilingual education is designed to teach subject matter and the language at the same time. Through bilingual education, the students thus have a need to understand and communicate in the target language because they are truly involved in a communicating situation.

IV. Methods and Classroom Practices

Teacher-Training in ESL for Adults: New Jersey Suggests a Model

Kathryn Taschler and Richard Hitt *

Once there was an ESL teacher who opened a window in his classroom and let the air of reality in. Because of the limitations imposed by four walls, rows of desks and chairs, and the sterility of interminable drill and dialogue rehearsal, the teacher sought to make language learning real and self-generated. Situations were created so that students became totally involved. The language generated was "real" because it applied to the situation. The students learned by doing.

Just as the ESL teacher tried to create a "real" atmosphere to enhance the learning situation, so too have ESL teacher-trainers attempted to provide a real situation for the practical application of theory and techniques.

"Learn by doing" has been the aim of the ESL teacher-training Institutes that have been held in New Jersey during the past three summers. Specifically designed for teachers in Adult Basic Education programs, the Institutes combined theory with a supervised practicum so that the teacher-participants had an opportunity to see, hear, and do.

QUESTION: How much time was spent in actual practice teaching, and who were the students?

ANSWER: The practicum was an integral part of the daily schedule using on-going classes of adult ESL students from the West New York, New Jersey, Adult Education Program. The classes met four nights a week. During the first week, participants of the Institute observed the Master Teachers conducting the flasses. But during the final two weeks, the teaching duties were the sole responsibility of the participants.

QUESTION: Were the participants given guidance in planning their lessons?

ANSWER: Working in groups with an average ratio of six participants to each master teacher, the primary purpose of the daily activities was to apply the techniques and theories presented by the master teacher to daily lesson planning. Most often, the participants worked in groups of three to prepare for an evening's lesson.

The master teachers acted as resource persons as well as guides during the planning sessions.

QUESTION: What other activities prepared the participants to teach in the evening school?

ANSWER: Peer teaching in the small group was an effective technique that helped the participants overcome embarrassment and gave encouragement in the use of the new techniques.

Video tapes were made of each participant's teaching performance, and were used for self-analysis as well as for critique of the lesson.

QUESTION: Besides the master teachers, what other resources were available to the participants?

ANSWER: Guest speakers, who are prominent in the field of ESL, were engaged to present their views and knowledge on topics that reinforced, clarified, or expanded ideas presented by the master teachers.

A professional library of reference materials, textbooks, and visual aids was available to participants at all times. Filmstrips and teacher-training films were an additional resource.

Individual assignments were also made from reference books that each participant received courtesy of the Institute.

QUESTION: Specifically, what techniques were demonstrated and practiced during the institutes?

ANSWER: Using an audio-lingual approach with emphasis on the structure and the situation, the participants were given experiences in:

- Presenting a structure in a natural linguistic setting.
- Providing ample practice through drills such as repetition, substitution and transformation; question-answer sequencing; dialogues; games, etc.
- Using appropriate gestures.
- Developing techniques for maximum student - student participation.
- Helping students apply the new language in meaningful situations.
- Developing materials appropriate for each lesson.

QUESTION: Who funded the institutes and where were the participants drawn from?

ANSWER: The first Institute (1970) was funded through the New Jersey Office of Adult Basic Education using state literacy money. Forty teachers from New Jersey participated in a three week program.

A 309 Federal Institute grant was awarded to Jersey City State College Adult Education Resource Center for a National Institute in 1971. Eighty-one teachers from fourteen states took part in the three-week program.

The 1972 Institute was funded again through the New Jersey Office of Adult Basic Education, but was New Jersey's contribution to the Region II Staff Development Project. Twenty-four new teachers and sixteen experienced teachers participated in a four-week program, the latter group returning for advanced training.

QUESTION: Where did the concept for this model originate and who administers the program?

ANSWER: In New Jersey, the responsibility for training teachers hired by local ABE/ESL programs lies primarily with four Adult Education Resource Centers located at four of the State Colleges – Glassboro, Jersey City, Montclair, and Newark. Regularly scheduled area workshops and local in-service programs provide minimal training opportunities, but the need for a continuous, concentrated effort was recognized as the most effective means of upgrading the skills of the instructors employed to teach ESL.

The staff of the Resource Center at Jersey City State College designed the original model with assistance from the staff of Glassboro State College Adult Education Resource Center. Working as a team, they have developed, coordinated and administered the Institute programs, modifying the model only for improvement or to suit the needs of the participants.

QUESTION: How effective have these teacher-training ventures been?

ANSWER: Weekly evaluations during the Institute by participants and staff members are an integral part of the program, and are an indication of immediate effectiveness.

Follow-up visits for on-the-job observation of the New Jersey participants indicate an increased awareness and skill in their teaching performance. Many teachers who have participated in the Institutes have a lower attrition rate of student drop-outs than their colleagues who have not taken part in the program.

In 1971, a comprehensive evaluaation

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ESL for Adults

(continued)

of the program was made by the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education (N.A.P.C.A.E.) in keeping with the 309 guidelines. In its final report, the evaluators stated: "The overall design of the Institute was excellent. This format should be replicated in future teacher-training projects."

Part of the 1972 evaluation design for the advanced track was the use of video tapes for pre and post testing. The results show a clear contrast in performance over the four-week period, and are another proof of the success of the program.

QUESTION: Are there any further suggestions for other teacher-trainers?

ANSWER: The success of a group of participants and ultimately the entire Institute program is due to the talent of the group leaders (master teachers). They must possess the necessary background in theory as well as the ability to demonstrate the techniques they wish to convey.

Planning well enough in advance of the actual starting date is a key factor. As a group, the master teachers set the instructional objectives and plan the program, while the administrators make arrangements for equipment, transportation, finances, use of adult ESL classes, etc. It is team effort that results in the various components complimenting each other and leads to a smoothly operating program.

New Jersey is making great strides in the area of teacher-training for adult ESL programs. It has been given the active support of the HEW Region II program officer, and derives its leadership from the Office of Adult Basic Education which is committed to helping meet the needs of non-English speakers throughout the State.

We are always interested in improving our teacher-training endeavors. However, we firmly believe that theory without practice is sterile. Just as teachers work toward real situations in their classrooms, we, in New Jersey, feel that this is the best way to approach a training project.

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COUNSELING-LEARNING: A WHOLISTIC VIEW OF THE LEARNER

Karen E. Czarnecki and
Joseph A. Ramos

Counseling-Learning, a new method introduced by Charles A. Curran, seeks to facilitate language learning through a synthesis of the student's affective and cognitive domains.[1] In simplified terms, this means that the student's interests, values and attitudes are utilized (the feeling aspect in a broad sense), and synthesized in the classroom with the more usually employed cognitive or thinking domain. This synthesis brings about a more complete language learning experience. How does this work?

First, the instructor's recognition and acceptance of the whole student requires him to modify his teaching technique. He must take into account the fact that the student is not only a thinking, but also a feeling human being who comes to class with anxieties and insecurities.[2] In so doing, the instructor's emphasis changes from a questioning modality to a listening one. He must therefore abandon the usual teacher-questions, student-answers technique which has the stultifying effect of putting the student on the spot, further creating anxieties related to his fear of not being understood. The instructor should instead act as a reflecting device to the student's utterances by paraphrasing them in correct English. For example, the student might say, "I no feel good today." Whereupon, the instructor, instead of asking why, or saying "No, that's not right, you should say "I don't feel good today," paraphrases the student's response by simply saying "you don't feel well today." Several things will be accomplished: one, the student immediately recognizes the difference between his use of the language and the instructor's (usually instantly correcting himself) and is led to further enlarge upon that point, thus experimenting with and using the language. Two things may be pointed out here: one, the value of self-correction is obvious; second, the student continues in a vein most relevant for him, thereby helping to teach himself. The fact that the instructor reflects back the student's statements without making judgments or affixing diagnostic labels encourages greater self-knowledge and confidence on the student's part, and with it, the increased ability to communicate well and effectively in English.

The success of this approach depends on the instructor's own security with the method which will in turn affect his ability to create an understanding and accepting atmosphere for the learner. Because it is much easier to ask questions or to correct the student than to wait for utterances which may be long in coming, the instructor may feel uncomfortable. However, the successful creation of an accepting atmosphere will help to defuse an *ordinarily and or confrontational experience* for the student. Counseling-Learning then, requires that the instructor retrain himself by restraining from the normal focus-on-instructor to the far more effective focus-on-student. In this way, the student is encouraged to take the greatest responsibility for his own learning. When the student's whole self becomes actively involved in the learning process, not just his committed brain, personal investment takes place and an actual growth process begins. This is analogous to the insemination process, wherein a seed is planted, and through the process of nurtured growth, it is allowed to branch out, taking on new direction for further growth.

Curran's counseling-learning can be used by itself or as a technique in addition to other techniques. Take for example, a lesson being taught on simple prepositions of place After the instructor has introduced the structures using whatever techniques and methods he is successful with, and the students have been led to achieve some competency, he can then encourage the greater creative use of the structures by utilizing the counseling-learning method. This is easily accomplished by presenting a picture with visual representations of previously learned prepositions (such as a magazine illustration) and by allowing the student to speak freely without teacher (questioning) interference.[3] *The instructor's use in his paraphrasing feedback of the structures taught* will encourage further use of them by the students. The instructor's role is to give understanding feedback in correct English, but he does not otherwise interfere by drawing attention to mistakes or by asking innumerable questions. That students will correct each other becomes particularly evident when this technique is used in a small group.

In every class there will be at least one student who cannot or will not interact with the others in a conversation modality. The non-interactor, then, can be reached on a one-to-one basis using the counseling-learning technique. A casual, non-threatening statement made directly to him by the instructor while passing out papers, for example, but requiring some response from the student, can be the opening wedge. Later, contacts before and after class can be utilized to lessen stress and encourage confidence so that an everwidening circle of intreaction becomes gradually possible. It is important to reiterate here that the instructor resist the desire to ask questions and instead replace this activity with encouragement and acceptance of the student's utterances. This acceptance by the instructor nurtures growth and allows for student involvement, not only with his peers, but also with the learning process itself.

By understanding and utilizing the counseling-learning method the instructor encourages the student's greatest possible use of English because he utilizes the whole person. The student, like any other human, must have a ~~positive self-image, be~~ accepted by and be able to convalidate his experiences with his peers. These feelings and needs which are not normally encouraged inside the classroom, are allowed to surface and are explored in an accepting way. The student is consequently enabled to invest his total self in the learning process. Thus an actual internal growth takes place which augments the more usual external overlay of facts which a student "puts on" much as he would an overcoat. A further bonus is that the student's internal growth, which is a live, dynamic thing, extends far beyond the confines of the classroom, enabling him to more competently utilize his everyday experiences as part of his own learning processes.

In using the counseling-learning method the instructor has the responsibility of requiring the student to utilize his own best langauge learning abilities which are not, as we have seen, only restricted to his cognitive self. By involving the whole person in the learning process, the instructor encourages the student to develop an inner criteria for correct English usage. Therefore, through this method more so than others, the student is enabled to function both correctly and creatively outside the classroom as well as within.

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[1] Charles A. Curran, *Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education* (New York: Grune & Stratton, Inc., 1972).

[2] Many of these anxieties and insecurities are of course directly linkable to the language learning experience itself.

[3] As an example, *Progressive Picture Compositions*, Donn Byrne (London: Longman Group Limited, 1967).

SOME IMPLICATIONS OF THE PHRASE "AS EVERYBODY KNOWS"

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I've been interested for a long time in statements people make which are prefaced by the phrase "As everybody knows . . ." For example, "Everybody knows that two and two make four," "As everybody knows, a **noun** is the name of a person, place, or thing," or "**You** know, as well as everybody else, that you can't teach an old dog new tricks." Ordinarily, when I hear the phrase "As everybody knows" it is followed by something I've heard many times before. Occasionally, however, the phrase is followed by something I've never heard before, and I begin to wonder what kind of a person is making such a statement.

Except for some rare instances, as just mentioned, a lot of information about our attitudes and beliefs can be found in statements following "As everybody knows." Such statements often reveal what we consider good or bad, right or wrong, and also things that we regard as particularly important or as unimportant in our society.

"What everybody knows" must be an important part of our culture if everybody knows it. But what is it that everybody knows? I've heard Henry Lee Smith make comments about this phrase on several occasions. Smith's notion is that remarks following "As everybody knows" more often don't indicate facts at all. "What everybody knows," according to his experience, ordinarily means "What nobody knows." He warns us, that is, to treat such information with a great deal of caution, for it may well mislead us.

Perhaps this is an individual matter. Some people who use the expression, I suppose, are careful to give facts only, whereas others are apt to mix facts and folklore. But then, what are facts? Is it a fact that you can't teach an old dog new tricks? Is it a fact that a noun is the name of a person, place, or thing. A person prefacing his remark with the phrase "As everybody knows" doesn't usually expect to be challenged. To his way of thinking, at least, he is uttering what he considers to be a truth or a fact or a widespread assumption. But Henry Lee Smith advises us to beware of what follows this phrase.

This phrase "What everybody knows" has stayed with me a long time, because to me it's important. "Everybody" in this context, of course, refers to native speakers of English who participate in something we call an "American way of life." "What everybody knows" includes the information and skills we've acquired over the years and the behavior we've learned since early childhood.

Obviously a foreign student needs to know a good part of "What everybody knows" in order to function satisfactorily on a college or university campus in the U. S. First off, he needs to know English—this is something that "everybody" knows. We do a pretty good job with language, I think, in comparison with other knowledge and skills we would like to teach the foreign student. We would like to be able to place him on the same "footing" as the American student in regard to knowledge and skills and behavior. This will never come about, however, because there's not much we can do to shortcut the years the American has had in living and learning with other Americans and preparing for college or university studies.

I've come to believe that in many ways the 6th-grade school child is representative of the average American in regard to knowledge. Whether by accident or design, what comes through our systems of mass communication—TV, radio, movies, newspapers, etc.—falls within the 6th-grader's range of understanding. This doesn't mean that he's interested in everything produced, but he's capable of understanding most of it. Of course, the 6th-grader doesn't ordinarily have the reasoning ability of the adult, nor the interest range, and he has a long way to go before reaching intellectual and emotional maturity. But I have the feeling that if we could measure what the 6th-grader knows, we would make a good start on measuring "What everybody knows."

Also, I've grown to think of 6th-grade Americans in connection with adult foreign students in American colleges and universities. Adapted readings prepared for foreign students have been taken over and used a good deal by 6th-grade teachers, mostly for supplementary purposes. I've been told by a number of 6th-grade teachers that such readings work very well with their pupils, and the exercises accompanying the readings are equally appropriate for the most part. A few years ago I was told that a large school system offered to adopt the **Reader's Digest English as a Second Language Series** for regular elementary-school pupils if the company would reprint the cover and delete the words "English as a Second Language." It is not infrequent that an English-for-foreign-students text turns up on a board of education approved list where the foreign-student population is virtually nil. This seems to happen mostly when the text is not clearly labeled "English as a second language" or "English as a foreign language" or with some other similar phrase.

I'm not recommending adapted readings or other kinds of foreign-student texts for use with native speakers of English. Certainly 6th-graders can handle more of the resources of the language than foreign students, and the grading done for foreign students is not altogether realistic for 6th-grade Americans. Furthermore, their American experience being much broader, they can read about and understand cultural situations which the foreign student would find confusing or even unintelligible. My point here is that some sort of parallelism has shown up on several occasions, and this has caused me to focus more attention on 6th-graders and what they have learned by the age of 11 or 12. Also, I have an interest as a parent in this age-range. My son finished 6th grade last year, and one of my daughters started 6th grade about a month ago.

Frankly, I think that if a foreign student had an American background equivalent to that of an American 6th-grader, he would be in pretty good shape. The knowledge and skills of the 6th-grader, plus the foreign student's own intellectual maturity, his own range of interests, etc., would certainly put him in a better position to compete with American college and

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This paper was first presented at the English Section Meeting of the Modern Language Assn. of Southern California; on Oct. 15, 1966.

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university students.

Following this notion of possible parallelism between 6th-grade Americans and adult foreign students I conducted an experiment recently in my two English composition classes for foreign students. I made up a list of background information items familiar to 6th-graders and converted the list into a test for my foreign students—items like "What part of the U. S. is called 'Dixie'?" "Name one of Thomas Edison's inventions." "What is the name of Roy Rogers' horse?" "With what famous American do you associate the name 'Poor Richard'?" To answer this last question, one of my students reasoned that "'Poor Richard' is Mr. Nixon."

The test covers very simple items—simple from our point of view, that is—on American history, government, geography, literature, technology, music, nursery rimes and stories, and there's a miscellaneous category. These categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, the question "What is the 50th state?" was put in the geography group, but it might have been considered a government item or a history item.

The foreign students tested are on a fairly advanced level: they have been admitted as regular students at San Francisco State College, but they must take a reduced course load for at least one semester. In addition to special English for foreign students, I believe they are allowed to take two or, in some cases, three regular courses. In my particular sections the students are mostly from the Middle and Far East. At the time of testing they had been in the U. S. from one week to three years. When I gave the test to my two sections, there were 60 students altogether; later on, about 15 of these were shifted to a newly created section of the same course.

The first history item was "How many stars were on the first U. S. flag?" 22 out of the 60 got this one right. 24 were right on "Who was President immediately before Mr. Eisenhower?" 20 right on "What did the Indians use the name 'iron horse' for?" 42 right on "Who was President during the Civil War?" 16 right on "Who was first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen?" And 38 right on "Name one man who signed the Declaration of Independence." As an answer to this last item, one student wrote "George Hamilton."

The first government item was "What does the L in LBJ stand for? 32 of the 60 were right on this one, but the spelling of "Lyndon" was done variously. Only 7 were right on "How long is a U. S. Senator's term of office?" 42 were right on this item: "One of the two largest political parties in the U. S. is called the Democratic Party. What is the other one called?" I don't know whether one student was being facetious or not, but he answered "the Communist Party."

I've already mentioned the two geography items: "What part of the U. S. is called Dixie?" and "What is the 50th state?" 16 were right on the first, concerning Dixie; and 34 were right about Hawaii.

The first literature item was "How long did Rip Van Winkle sleep?" Only 7 answered correctly with "twenty years." Various answers were "all night," "two days," "14 years," "40 years," "100 years," and "200 years." Only 2 were right on "With what famous American do you associate the name 'Poor Richard'?" 3 were right on "What was Mark Twain's real name?" And 19 were right on "What kind of a creature was Moby Dick?" with various spellings of the word "whale."

Nobody answered the first music item correctly; this was "Who wrote the 'Star Spangled Banner'?" One student answered Shakespeare, one Faulkner, and one John Philip Sousa." 20 were right on "With what do you associate the name Lawrence Welk? Only one right on "What is Irving Berlin's principal occupation?" Two students answered "cook," one "teacher," and one "lawyer." 2 were right on this item: "Out where the buffalo roam and the deer and the antelope play, what is seldom heard?"

The first technology item was "With what do you associate the name Henry Ford?" 51 gave acceptable answers on the item; one student wrote "He discovered the automobile." Another wrote "He is a good actor," probably mixing up Henry Fonda and Glenn Ford. 33 gave an acceptable response to "Name one of Thomas Edison's inventions." A couple of students apparently believe Mr. Edison invented the telephone and telegraph, in addition to his other accomplishments. Only 4 knew who invented the steamboat and the cotton gin. 26 were right on "What company is the largest manufacturer of computers in the U. S.?" One student answered General Electric, one National Cash Register Company, and one Greyhound Bus Company. Perhaps the latter confused "computer" with "commuter." 34 were right on "With what do you associate the Wright brothers?"

The first item dealing with nursery rimes and stories was "What did the 3 little pigs build their houses with? Only 3 got this one right. Nobody knew "Who sat on a tuffet?" 3 were right on "Where did little Jack Horner sit?" And 4 were right on "What did Little Boy Blue blow?"

Only 2 students gave a correct answer to "What is Old Glory?" One student wrote that "Old Glory is a song that was sung during the Civil War;" one answered "gold," and another answered "God." 14 were right on "With what sport do you associate the name Babe Ruth?" One wrote "golf," and another "badminton." Only 2 were right on "What's the name of Roy Rogers' horse?" 22 were able to "Name one American astronaut." 6 were right on "What kind of animal does the name 'Fido' usually refer to?" Two students answered "cow" and three answered "cat." 12 were right on "What is Smokey the Bear interested in?" One student answered "tricks," two answered "honey," and another wrote "Smokey the Bear is interested in his mate." 18 were right on "What kind of animal does the name 'Jumbo' usually refer to?" One student answered "hamburgers;" three wrote "dog," three "monkey," one "horse," one "bear," one "mountain lion," one "pig," and one "deer."

In another experiment I conducted not long ago, it was seen fairly clearly, I think, that the adult foreign student has greater powers of reasoning and interpretation than the 6th-grader. For a composition assignment I asked my students to write a paragraph or two explaining what they thought the following literary passage meant; this passage comes from a book by Gwen Raverat entitled **Period Place: A Cambridge Childhood**. It goes like this:

"I was also born into the trying position of being the eldest of the family, so that the full force of my mother's theories about education were brought to bear upon me; and it fell to me to

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blaze a path to freedom for my juniors through the forest of her good intentions."

The 6th-graders had considerable difficulty with this passage; they didn't seem to find it very meaningful. Incidentally, I should mention that the 6th-graders used in these experiments are my children and their neighborhood friends. A larger sampling of 6th-graders might give slightly different results. My foreign students, of course, have lived longer and have seen a good deal more of life than these American children; they found the passage quite meaningful. Since the passage was lifted from a larger context, they supplied a certain amount of the background which might or might not have been contained in the larger context. For example, many of my students assumed that the writer was a woman and that her mother had been a widow. Some of my students, furthermore, believed that the writer's mother had also died, and the responsibility for taking care of her younger brothers and sisters had fallen upon the writer's shoulders, and that in the conflict between two sets of ideas on education, the writer's ideas won out over those of her mother.

This same experiment, or a similar one using the same passage, was carried out by Virginia French Allen at Teachers College. She mentioned it at the NAFSA annual conference in Chicago, May 1966, and she was good enough to send me a copy of the passage for experimentation at SFSC.

In summary, I should say that, as far as I can see, there's only a superficial parallelism between the educational backgrounds of the 6th-grade American and the adult foreign student in an American college or university. There are clichés in language and clichés in culture, and these can be found in that vast storehouse called "What everybody knows." I've been particularly interested in examining the ways that 6th-graders demonstrate that they have control, to a very great extent, of both kinds of clichés. We learned long ago that in language teaching we have to dwell on the clichés; we work with the patterns; we hammer away at the everyday, trite expressions which our language is largely made up of. As much as possible we prevent our students from trying to be original in regard to language; in being original the student ordinarily steps outside the bounds of grammaticalness into something that is non-English.

In regard to building cultural background we should also stick to the clichés—stick to "What everybody knows." We need to dwell on the familiar. If the test I gave my students is valid, it shows quite clearly that what is familiar to us is not necessarily familiar to our foreign students. The strange and the unusual are less helpful for the foreigner in adjusting to student life in the United States than the familiar. At present I'm not in a position to tell teachers what specifically the foreign student should learn, besides language, in order to be a successful college or university student. The best advice I can give, as of now, is dwell on the familiar. If you can help the student learn "what everybody knows" you will perform the best service for him.

VISUALS TO THE RESCUE OF THE ESL TEACHER

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One of the many frustrations of ESL teachers (those who teach English as a second language) lies in the proverbial lack of time to assemble all the visual aids needed to make oral drills meaningfully stimulating rather than just linguistically manipulative. More often than not the ESL teacher who uses linguistically sound materials and who is trained in their utilization, falls short of full achievement because of pedagogically unsound visuals.

Take, for instance, a teacher using such excellent materials as the *Fries American English Series* (or its revised version, the *American English Series*). In the best of cases, an enterprising, energetic teacher will spend hours on end -- together with obliging mate and cooperative young ones at home — looking through magazines, searching for pictures, then cutting them out and mounting them on pleasing-to-the-eye, pastel colored pasteboard, which, with "normal wear", soon becomes dog-eared and chalk-smudged to say nothing of the tell-tale brownish decor added during planning-coffee break time . . . But, even before undergoing this common experience, our Mr. Enterprise and our Miss Energy, all set with brand new posters, reach the saturation point soon when in class after class their darlings keep missing the forest for the trees, saying "That's a girl" when they expect them to say, "That's a dress", or asking all sorts of questions (in their native language) about irrelevant and inevitable details in the background, or even in the foreground. Yes, it takes a while, but sooner or later we all find out that appropriate pictures, without distracting details to clutter our main objective, are hard to come by. In an effort to avoid this pitfall, some publishers have furnished their own visuals, as, for instance, the McGraw-Hill Picture Cue Cards that accompany the *English for Today Series*. The resulting "barren look" can be equally unsatisfactory by failing to provide the appealing motivation which is every youngster's minimum prerequisite to learning.

Something that does seem to be a suitable solution to our picture problem, however, is a series of Peabody Language Development Kits,* available from American Guidance Service, Inc. (Publishers' Building, Circle Pines, Minn. 55014). Although there are four of these kits, meant for use at levels K-3, our experience with them in second language teaching thus far has been only with the Level #1 Kit, which we have used with youngsters of various ages and levels. The Kit consists, as a main feature, of 430 numbered 7" x 9" plastic coated, full color cards classified in 13 different groups, such as animals, occupations, foods, household, and miscellaneous. These cards are large enough to be seen from the rear of an average-size classroom and yet not too large to make their handling cumbersome while the teacher is conducting oral drills, moving about among the students. In addition, there are 10 large 11" x 19" "Story" and "I Wonder" heavy paper "cards", two animal hand puppets, 350 plastic color chips, a tape of six favorite fairy tales and a daily lesson manual that contains the card index as well as a wealth of suggestions for oral language activities to be carried out by *native* speakers of English. All of these aids come in a metal 12" x 8" x 9½" case in which, properly labeled, they are always conveniently ready for use. Children of all ages find it quite easy and exciting to identify with the comical dog and horse puppets. Role-playing can thus make the most manipulative of pattern practices meaningful, for a child can really mean it when he says "My name is Biff", as he practices the pronunciation of the ever harassing /i/ in this very common VC° spelling pattern of English. Even more useful for ESL teachers are the numbered cards. Their simplicity and neatness, enhanced by appealing color, enable the teacher to focus attention on a single idea, or concept, or language item at a time. If stimuli for more complex language production of a connected discourse type are desired, the "Story" and "I Wonder" cards provide invaluable stimuli.

A correlation between the cards in this kit and six of the textbooks most commonly used now in Dade County Public Schools, namely the *Fries American English Series*, Books I & II (and revised *American English Series*, Books I & II) and the *English for Today* series, Books I & II, has been worked out by one of our enterprising and energetic teachers. This "correlation" makes it possible for the teacher who is preparing to teach a unit in any of these books to know which cards will be useful at a particular point. The endless and often fruitless search through magazines has at last ended for our ESL teachers.

Mrs. Inclan is Coordinator of Bilingual Education in the Dade County School System.

*We would like to stress the fact that it is the **materials** in the Kits which make them a very valuable asset for the ESL teacher. The manual is designed to meet the needs of the **Language Arts** teacher. The suggested activities, therefore, if used at all by ESL teachers, must be carefully selected in the light of sound principles of second language teaching and learning.

°Vowel - Consonant

A PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR THOSE CONCERNED WITH THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND OR FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND OF STANDARD ENGLISH AS A SECOND DIALECT.

TESOL NEWSLETTER

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HUMO(U)R, A NEGLECTED FEATURE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

F. Gomes de Matos

Humor has long been a neglected feature in foreign language teaching. In his comprehensive, well-documented history of FLT, Kelly devotes two paragraphs to the elusive but nevertheless important role of humor in language teaching. That author mentions the name of the great Dutch humanist Erasmus (1466-1536), as one of the practical pioneers in the motivational use of humor in the classroom during the Renaissance. In contemporary times, according to Kelly, the late British methodologist Michael West (well known for his manifold works in English as a foreign language) pointed out that "a vivid, dramatic, or amusing situation was a powerful aid to memory". (p. 13, op. cit). We could mention another distinguished British methodologist, W. R. Lee, who comments on how to vitalize the language-learning-and-teaching process:

> "There is no reason why language eaching should be a longfaced, solemn ffair. There should be plenty of aughter and excitement, for these can elp learning to go with a swing...The ver-serious teacher who cannot unbend, specially in miming and acting out ialogues and simple stories, and who annot have fun with his pupils, is faced ith a much harder task than one who n. Quick and slightly comical sketches n the board (very simple ones) can also ve life to language..."

In Kelly's book mention is made of erald Fleming, a British applied linguist ho teaches at the University of Surrey, r his pioneering attempt at exploring e role of humor in his **Visual Grammar of French.**

In a now celebrated article, Fleming stresses the fact that humor is a vital ingredient in communication. He advocates the use of what he calls "mellow humor" and comments ..."mellow humour should be a significant element of the content of language-teaching aids..."

In spite of the above references and quotations, it is somewhat surprising to recognize the fact that humor is still a very much neglected feature in the learning-teaching of foreign languages. One would not have to go through many so-called methodology manuals to realize that quality or characteristic is simply not given specific attention or not even mentioned at all. The subject of humor seems to be neglected partly because of its rather elusive nature: it has hardly been touched upon by specialists in descriptive linguistics. Crystal and Davy, two British linguists, have this to say about humor in their excellent treatment of English style:

> "Humour is essentially different from other varieties (of language), being fundamentally unspecifiable linguistically"..., (p. 78). They add that "humour introduces a number of descriptive problems which our theory in its present form cannot handle." (p. 79, op. cit).

Has humor been re-discovered?

It seems that humor as a component, an ingredient, or a feature of language learning-and-teaching has been rediscovered in the present decade.

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Examples can be given of this still incipient pedagogical trend:

The publication, in December 1971, of LET'S HAVE FUN — a pedagogical-humorous approach to English for Brazilian High School Students.

This is a series (3 Books, Teachers Manuals, posters, filmstrips, cassettes and records) prepared for Brazilian schools by the Centro de Lingüística Aplicada of the Instituto de Idiomas Yázigi in Sao Paulo. LHF capitalizes on the assumption that **Learning English as a foreign language can and should be both productive and FUN.**

The appearance, in Belgium of a pocket book entitled **Apprendre l'anglais par la bande dessinée** , and in England, of a five-book series called **Cartoons for Students of English.** Canada also joined the fashionable trend by giving us **Amusettes** , a book containing 20 amusing stories. The Belgium book claims "Incroyable mais vrai: on peut apprende l'anglais... sans l'étudier, tout en s'amusant." (p. 5, op. cit); whereas the British booklets are advertised in their backcover as a series which "presents cartoons graded in terms of language difficulty and in levels of sophistication."

The Canadian authors, on the other hand, state that "L'ensemble est tissé d'humeur a la fois simple et charmant, Vous aurez une classe agréable mais qui apprendra". (Préface)

Humor, Sense of humor and the good-humored teacher

What is humor? According to the Random House Dictionary of the English Language **humor consists principally in the recognition and expression of incongruities or peculiaries present in a situation or character. It is frequently used to illustrate some fundamental absurdity in human nature or conduct,...Humor may, of course, mean different things such as (a) a state of mind and (b) something laughable or comic.** The true nature of humor has always puzzled philosophers and psychologists.

Among the latter, the name of Arthur Koestler stands out as a particularly insightful student of the subject of humor and laughter. His classic book **The Act of Creation** has a 25-page chapter on the logic of laughter

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and a 23-page chapter on Varieties of Humour. Koestler's attempt at analyzing a joke in terms of three criteria — "originality", "emphasis", and "economy" — is both revealing and entertaining. Readers who would like to read something about humor in Portuguese might do well to start with **O Riso e o Cômico.**

Sense of humor is, perhaps, too difficult or almost impossible to define, but good-humor, according to some dictionaries, means a cheerful or amiable mood. Being a good-humored teacher, then, whould mean teaching and showing a cheerful, pleasant and amiable mood.

A sense of humor and a sense of fun: these are badly needed traits in every teacher's personality. **To make his students' learning an enjoyable, while productive experience,** here is a challenge which teachers everywhere face. It is significant that in the present decade, when informal education and student-centered approaches are being more and more emphasized, some attention in being given to humor at the service of learners of foreign languages.

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LESSONS THAT WORK

by Darlene Larson, N.Y.U.

Some "lessons that work" are currently available from TESOL. I'm referring to the Paulston article, **DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE: GOALS, PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES – A Talk About Language Teaching.** It was delivered at the Lackland Air Force Base, English Language Branch of the Defense Language Institute by Christina Bratt Paulston of the University of Pittsburgh. Copies are well worth your dollar. Send to TESOL, 455 Nevils, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20007.

Paulston mentions four basic types of activities for developing communicative competence and gives specific examples of each one. Her categories are: social formulas and dialogues, community-oriented tasks, problem-solving activities, and role play. Two of these lessons that worked well when tried in New York were the problem-solving activity about planning for a camping trip and the role play about buying a house. I'd like to add to her comments about role play.

Role play consists of three parts: the situation, the roles, and useful expressions. It is crucial to set conditions for a potential conflict, as well. She describes a procedure which might span a week of class time in discussing the situation, perhaps including some background knowledge, explaining some of the sociolinguistic information in the expressions, explaining and assigning roles, and finally performing.

An alternative procedure for role play has been developed and shared by Mary Hines. In order to bring the lesson closer to reality and to add an increasing step of difficulty, Hines recommends that the exact nature of each character **not** be discussed in advance by the **entire** class. After all, when you meet in conversation someone with a personality quirk or problem, it isn't announced in advance. They don't wear a banner which announces, "I find fault with everything," or, "I've just lost my job and my wife is sick and I'm not in a very good mood."

Hines recommends three supporting devices in preparation for the role play: lines to choose from; a description of the role; and a few minutes to consider how and when this personality might employ some of the suggested lines. Before class it is necessary to type on 5 x 8 cards the personality characteristics and the useful expressions that one has in mind. In other words, if there is a policeman, Hines would prepare a card, one side of which would tell the student that he is a policeman, he's been working all night and he's in his second over-time hour, he's worried about his promotion, and suddenly he gets a call to go to X. The other side of the card would have lines to choose from. Some would be answers, some questions, some comments. They'd be in no particular order and no one else's lines would be there.

Once the class begins, the first step is a brief discussion of the setting. Where are they? What's an intersection? Maybe a sketch on the board would help. Identify a crosswalk, sidewalk, traffic, traffic lights, window shoppers. . .whatever. But don't discuss personalities.

Then she groups students maybe two or three perspective policemen, a few window-shoppers, a couple taxi passengers, drivers, etc. Each group studies the information on its own card. As the teacher moves from group to group, guiding questions might be asked like: What's over-time? How do you feel at the end of a day's work? . . .and, regarding the other side, Is that something that would start a conversation? or would it be a response to someone else? Would a policeman say that particular line sharply or calmly? On what occasion or to whom do you think someone would say the next line? In other words, this period of time is meant to help the students anticipate the kinds of conversational occurrences that might arise, but they don't know when they'll be said nor by whom.

When each group seems to have an understanding of its role, the teacher asks for a volunteer to be first to play the role. Of course, after the first try, a great deal more information about the interaction of the personalities is known by all. But, since there are a couple other people who are prepared to play each part and since each has a different personality and style each short scene comes out differently. There are always a few surprises, and a lot of realistic oral experience.

We use both procedures. The Paulston discussion method is certainly preferable when the setting requires new cultural understanding. It is also a good way to get groups accustomed to role play activities. But the Hines method adds an element of reality which pushes the students to anticipate what might happen and to revise and adjust their conversational choices according to what does happen.

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SOME PRIORITIES FOR A GOOD ESL CLASS

by Larry Anger, LaGuardia Community College

The more I observe classes, the more excited I become about the sometimes surprising, yet always impressive, techniques and strategies currently being applied in ESL classrooms. To say the least, I have seen variety, innovation and eclecticism - many approaches that effectively get the message across. This is not to say that I have gone so far as to encourage methodological anarchy for I do have certain specific guidelines that are necessary to follow regardless of the approach an instructor chooses to help his or her students learn and use English.

Of course, I have visited some very bad classes at different times, too - bad to the point that it amazes me that an instructor can be so unaware, so out of touch with what is happening in his or her classroom, that he or she does not realize that the students are not learning and that they are very often bored to death. How can an instructor not put himself or herself in the place of his or her students to determine whether the lesson in progress is successful or not?

The above is only one of the questions that an instructor must ask himself or herself to maintain an excellent class during which learning is maximized. I have assembled a list of questions which are, in fact, priorities indicative of a good class. Although the topics of these questions are teacher centered, their focus is on student learning. Rather than group the questions into categories such as "teacher preparation," "teacher awareness," or "student interaction," I will leave them in the form of a checklist:

YES NO 1. Do you demonstrate adequate planning and sequencing?

YES NO 2. Do you use material that is relevant to the students' world and at an appropriate level for the students?

YES NO 3. Is the aim of your lesson clear to your students, i.e., is the target structure or activity clearly delineated and reflected in your preparation?

YES NO 4. Do you have a clear understanding of the structure so that you will not be "surprised" by irregular items?

YES NO 5. Are your directions clear and to the point?

YES NO 6. Do you keep rules, diagrams and explanations to a minimum?

YES NO 7. Are your handouts well prepared and legible and NOT poor duplications characterized by light print or minute type which students, already struggling in a second language, must struggle to read?

YES NO 8. Do you speak naturally, at normal speed?

YES NO 9. Do you maintain an appropriate pace to keep the class alert and interested?

YES NO 10. Do you have good rapport with your class, respecting the students' time as well as exhibiting sensitivity to the students (as adults or children) and offering positive reinforcement?

YES NO 11. Do you listen to your students and are you aware of student errors, limiting correction to what is necessary and relevant?

YES NO 12. Do you promote student self-editing?

YES NO 13. Do you utilize peer correction?

YES NO 14. Do you respect students' abilities to use their own grey matter to come up with new items and do you invite them to use their own powers of analogy or analysis to make "educated guesses? "

YES NO 15. Do you promote student participation and activity?

YES NO 16. Are you aware of the ratio of student and teacher talk, keeping teacher talk to a minimum rather than dominating the class?

YES NO 17. Do your students have an opportunity to communicate with each other in real language activities so that the emphasis is not on pattern practice?

YES NO 18. Is your class arranged for successful communication between students and easy accessibility to the teacher?

YES NO 19. Can your students to something new linguistically after the class?

YES NO 20. Would you, as a student, enjoy your own class?